TEACHER EDUCATION IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA: POLICY AND PRACTICE 1946-1996

VOLUME I

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DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for a degree or diploma in any university or other institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Pam Quartermaine

Pamela Anne Quartermaine

25. 6. 2001

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ABSTRACT

This was a study in Papua New Guinea (PNG) of the planning and implementation of a new three-year teacher education programme, the Diploma in Teaching (Primary). What the indigenous staff in the nine residential colleges did to introduce the programme between 1991 and 1993, was seen at the outset by the writer to be an important culmination of all that preceded the innovation. The context, therefore, is detailed historically for the 50 years from 1946 to 1996, indicating teacher training and teacher education policy development, the process of staff localisation (indigenisation) and college programme evolution.

The pioneering work of indigenous PNG school teachers was a significant contribution to the country's development, consequently the way they were prepared for their work and roles was a useful investigation. The need for education was apparent as the training and employment of indigenous people accelerated at all levels in the workforce. Political Independence in 1975 heralded withdrawal of many Australian Public Servants. Papua New Guinea's contacts with the wider world were assisted by those proficient in the English language and modernisation demanded 'international standards', a term used by a Prime Minister, Sir Julius Chan. All of the changes over fifty years required a person to be educated differently than before.

The study involved collecting data through multi-site and multi-method means as follows: Observations and interviews of lecturers in colleges and a survey with administrators at the end of the first year of the Diploma implementation; an analysis of staff reports, which had been written in each of the three years, and an examination of the responses to a questionnaire sent to colleges at the time of the graduation of their first Diploma cohort. The instruments were designed for this study. The historical data were located in a range of official and private documents, and secondary sources, as well as conversations with people who earlier served in PNG (and personal experience). The analysis fitted together the story of teacher education in Papua and New Guinea. It is written mainly from a government policy perspective although data included material from college staff, Christian church agencies, universities and involved national, provincial and international groups and individuals. Limitations to the study may be partly associated with paucity of access to official records and transient key actors due to a 'developing country' situation.

In terms of findings of the study data show that new policies need to be clear if they are

to be implemented as planned and adopted not adapted; the possibility in a joint working relationship of tensions between Church agency goals and Government objectives and responsibilities; cross-cultural communication is a requirement and can never be assumed to be effective; assistance for a young country needs to start from where it sees itself; dissonant events and timing between host country and donor agency require non-threatening processes for adjustment and timing of intervention is important; the fragility of modern structures needs to be taken into account when planning change; ownership is crucial to meaningful participation by a developing country; a vision for change needs to be clarified with the teacher before commencement as failure to do so results in interpretation and action even more varied than normal; in a culture where criticism is not normally in public or the classroom, educational research documents, even if constructively critical, may not be read and there is a need for understanding continuity, overall policy formulation and coordination of implementation.

The thesis may assist volunteer staff agencies recruiting for a developing country setting, teacher educators, policy-makers, external funding agencies, indigenous leaders and historians.

Acknowledgements

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Acknowledgment is given to Professor P Hughes for introduction to the University of Tasmania, Hobart, to Dr Don Levis for field research advice in 1991 and for hospitality when I returned, and to Professor Williamson who agreed to my transfer to Launceston campus in 1994 and later to facilitate research progress including bi-annual visits, from Western Australia. A coincidence was to find that Mr P C Clifford, my teacher for many years in Dumbleyung, WA, was principal of Launceston Teachers' College (1961-1967) preceding Dr Levis (Fist 1993).

The help of the University administrative staff, particularly Kaye Garwood and the librarians, and of post-graduate and overseas students was welcome as was, in the commuting years, residence at Kerslake Hall. The Research Committee and the Student Administration Office of the University of Tasmania supported me and awarded exemption from payment of an annual Higher Education Contribution.

I am very grateful for the input of the following people acknowledged in order of contact: the 19 PNG lecturers visited in 1991; Mrs M M Liriope for consent to use staff reports and questionnaires and Mr P Modakewau for distribution of the interim report back to lecturers within PNG; Dr J B Farrell, Mr N K Robinson and Dr G Gibson for written comments on one of three historical chapters; Mr M Smith for records research and Miss Y Kunasai for PNG newspapers between 1994 and 1998; Mrs Joyce Eade-Mikosza, Murdoch University, WA for five years of assistance with sorting references and Mrs Geraldine Erlandson for professional secretarial services and collating the document.

I pay tribute to the people from around the world who taught in the developing PNG teachers' colleges and to my earlier tutors - Dr R Goodman, Dr P C C Evans and Dr C Brembeck. Finally, to commemorate PNG colleagues Bill Magnay, John Lee, Iamo Nou, Waituka Maina, Ted Fitzgerald and Kiane Julius Towandong, Principal, Balob Teachers' College, Lae who died on duty in 1995 aged 43 years. Kiane led committees for his church and regularly represented the provincial colleges at central office meetings while enthusiastically implementing the Diploma programme at his college.

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ACRONYMS

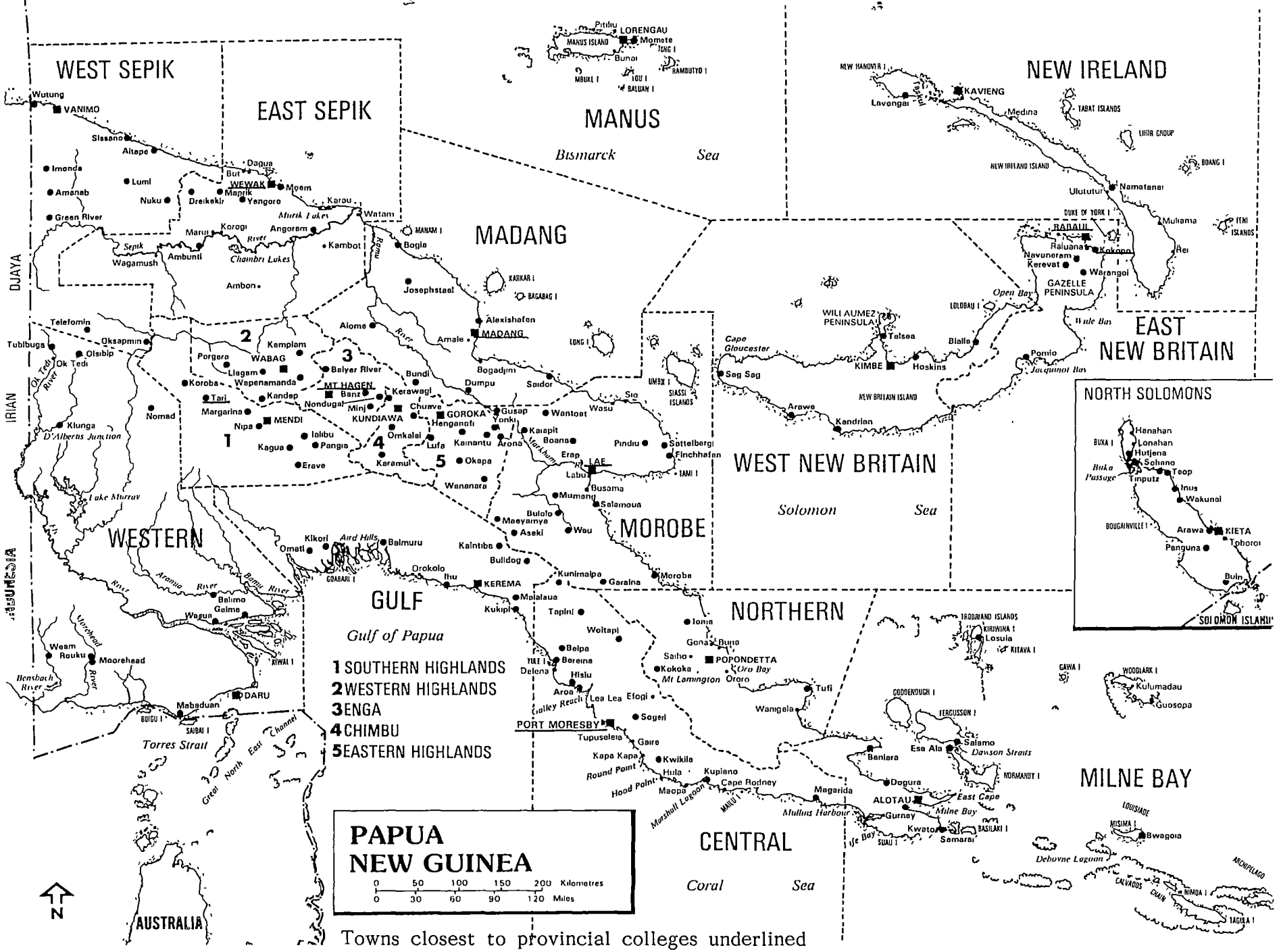
AAC	Academic Advisory Committee
ACE	Australian College of Education
ACEID	The Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AIDAB	Australian International Development Assistance Bureau
ANGAU	Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit
ANU	Australian National University
APC	Annual Principals' Conference
APCM	Asia Pacific Christian Mission
APEID	The Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development
ATE	Association of Teacher Education
AusAID	Australian Aid
AVA	Australian Volunteers Abroad
BCAE	Brisbane College of Advanced Education
CCAE	Canberra College of Advanced Education
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CO	Central Office
CTCSA	Community Teachers' Colleges Student Association
CUSO	Canadian University Service Overseas
DOE	Department of Education
EA	Evangelical Alliance
EO	Education Officer or Executive Officer
EDC	Executive Development Committee
EU	European Union
GC	Governing Council
GTC	Goroka Teachers' College
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LMS	London Missionary Society
MTC	Madang Teachers' College
MTNG	Mandated Territory of New Guinea
NCTE	National Council for Teacher Education
NDOE	National Department of Education
NEB	National Education Board

NEC	National Executive Council
NES	National Education System
NGO	Non-Government Organisations
NITE	National Institute of Teacher Education
NOTCC	National Objectives for Teachers' College Courses
NTEBS	National Teacher Education Board of Studies
OHE	Office of Higher Education
PEB	Provincial Education Board
PMIC	Port Moresby Inservice College
PMTC	Port Moresby Teachers' College
PNG	Papua New Guinea
QUT	Queensland University of Technology
SDA	Seventh Day Adventist
SDEO	Staff Development Evaluation Officer
SD&TD	Staff Development and Training Division
SDU	Staff Development Unit
SSDO	Senior Staff Development Officer
TC	Teachers' College
TEC	Teacher Education Committee
TED	Teacher Education Division
TERP	Teacher Education Research Project
TPNG	Territory of Papua-New Guinea
TSC	Teaching Service Commission
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific & Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UOT	University of Technology
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UPNG	University of Papua New Guinea
USA	United States of America
VSO	Volunteer Service Overseas

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

The following terms have been used in this record as a means of recounting different eras, for example:

a *native* teacher	pre-World War II
a *Papuan* teacher	people from Papua
an *indigenous* teacher	pre-Independence
a *national* officer	post-Independence
a *local* lecturer	in terms of localisation of work-force
Papua New Guinean	modern use
Primary school	First level schooling
Community school	First level schooling in PNG. Since Independence in 1975 Grades 1-6
Reform Primary School	Following three years of Elementary village school. Gradually introduced in provinces from mid-1990s Grades 3-8.


WEST SEPIK
EAST SEPIK
MANUS
NEW IRELAND
MADANG
EAST NEW BRITAIN
WEST NEW BRITAIN
NORTH SOLOMONS
MOROBE
GULF
WESTERN
NORTHERN
CENTRAL
MILNE BAY
Bismarck Sea
Solomon Sea
Coral Sea
Gulf of Papua
1 SOUTHERN HIGHLANDS
2 WESTERN HIGHLANDS
3 ENGA
4 CHIMBU
5 EASTERN HIGHLANDS
PAPUA NEW GUINEA
0 50 100 150 200 Kilometres
0 30 60 90 120 Miles
N
AUSTRALIA
Torres Strait
PORT MORESBY
LAE
KAVIENG
KIETA
POPONDETTA
DARU
KEREMA
MT HAGEN
WABAG
MENDI
GOROKA
KUNDIAWA
ALOTAU
Towns closest to provincial colleges underlined

CHAPTER ONE

THE INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates formal primary school teacher education in Papua New Guinea (PNG), from 1946 to 1996. In 1991, PNG had an estimated 45 000 children who stopped going to, or 'dropped out' of, formal schooling between grades one and ten, annually (Tetaga 1991). Moving back and forth between traditional village and modern town lifestyles many young people were unemployed and appeared socially disorientated. Some became part of a volatile group whose behaviour disappointed parents and concerned citizens. In a time of serious revenue deficit, due to copper mine closure and the periodical vagary of foreign grants and loans, there was still a tangible recognition by the PNG Parliament of schools, which continued to be funded. Universal Primary Education (UPE), or the new slogan in the 1990s *Education for All*, was the objective but enrolment, although steadily increasing, was only 73 percent of the school-age cohort. Modern education was respected as a national investment towards development, with the potential of enhancing the quality of life for individuals and for their extended families (Guthrie 1985; Pomponio 1985).

An educator from the Department of Education in Developing Countries at the University of London Institute of Education and recently the World Bank, Dr L Dove, writing about change issues in common, particularly to 'developing countries', gave this definition:

> These are countries where population growth and illiteracy are high and educational needs urgent. Though a high proportion of their national budgets is devoted to education; planning and management structures are relatively weak and many of their teachers are under-educated or untrained. They are generally speaking, countries which have few or unexploited natural resource development or have only recently become independent; national incomes are relatively low and they are dependent for much of their educational development on external aid in one form or another (Dove 1986:1).

Papua New Guinea met most of the global modernisation criteria suggested here.

NATION BUILDING

The World Bank classified PNG as a 'lower middle-income' country with an estimated per capita GNP of $US700 (1987), and as the 50th poorest of 120 countries listed. Despite the potential for income from natural resources, employment was estimated at 14

percent and 50 percent subsistence gardening (DOE 1991:1). Foreign loans from such agencies as the World Bank and Asian Development Bank and aid from Australia were essential for national survival and accepted as being part of a modern world.

Before Papua New Guinean (PNG) political Independence in 1975, there was a wealth of experience and some literature available about education and development in new nations, e.g., Hanson and Brembeck (1966). Universities in the United Kingdom and the United States of America had a Department of Comparative Education.

Philip Foster in his conclusion to the UPNG 1974 *Education in Melanesia* seminar at which he was a key speaker, reflected 'I had a profound sense of *deja vu* as I listened to speakers raising issues that I heard expressed in almost identical manner in Africa over a decade ago' (1975:516). People in PNG were no different to others, their perception was that the foreigners' schooling contributed to economic advantages. Foster (1975), however expressed reservations about the terms 'modernisation' and 'development' and about how much western schooling was a source of 'new' values. He was speaking about the strength of the values and teaching implicit in the village society.

Another speaker at the same seminar, Hiap Salaiau, a Manus woman university graduate, suggested that both traditional and colonial education was restrictive of girls and that colonial schooling made the mistake of not (overtly) building onto what the children already knew. Her advice was that 'While there is a difference the former can be a prerequisite of the latter in order to keep Papua New Guinea's own identity' (1975:336).

It was clear that by the 1990s school access for girls and women was improving although retention rates poor (Yeoman 1987a, b; Wormald & Crossley 1988) but what was not learned, or accepted, were new methods of birth control. Rural health services assisted more sick children and mothers in childbirth survive but the women when compared with others were not being advantaged. In a collaborative effort between UNICEF, the PNG Institute of Health and the Canadian University Service Overseas (CUSO) a two-year study of the health of women in PNG was conducted. It concluded: 'Too many children, too early, too late and too close together, pose a threat to the health and well-being of the mother, her children and indeed the village, province and nation' (Gillet 1990:160). It was claimed that in 95 developing countries, representing 97 percent of the developing world, PNG was listed as 26 and while education made a difference PNG was

ranked in the 'poor' category with 'minimal family planning and information services' (Gillet 1990:120). Flaherty (1998) quoted from a 1991 PNG Department of Finance and Planning document acknowledging 'critically low social indicators of women and the close relationship between the status of women, population and development' (1998:16).

The Community School (Primary) and Its Teachers

The first level of schools in PNG was called 'community schools'. The community school concept was 'related to' and had the community as 'background', but it did not mean the community becoming the 'core' of the curriculum; it is not 'restrictive', but 'widens the thinking and outlook', from that base (Aarons 1977). The community school (primary) teachers have all received preparation for their work. They cannot be taken out of the 'developing country' milieu, but an attempt is made in this report to focus, away from the extremes of hardships and away from the beauty of the country and its people, so often dwelt upon by outsiders, to see the professional development of teacher education, *a particular aspect.* At the same time, it is suggested the issues, and maybe the successes, related to teachers in a 'developing country' have relevance also in industrialised, 'developed' countries. A justification seen for using the concept of 'developing countries' here, is to highlight that while teachers and related issues everywhere have a lot in common, in order to get to what is specific, one must accept that:

> ... many analyses of teachers, their origins, their social status, their professional concerns and their technical tasks, have been carried out in the context of the resource-rich countries ... and very few ... in countries which operate in much more difficult, financial, administrative and physical conditions and in very different social and cultural contexts (Dove 1986:3).

The PNG Education Sector Review from late 1990 to July 1991 reported dissatisfaction with what was called an outdated 'colonial' school system and proposed what became known as 'the reform', which in the first instance was to be a restructuring of the National Education System (NES) (Tetaga 1991). Subsequently schooling opportunities were to be extended thus for all children: a vernacular pre-school and grades one and two in a village-based Elementary School; grades 3 to 6 of the old Community School plus grades seven and eight re-named Primary School and grades nine to twelve in post primary schools (Figure 1.1). These changes were to progress through liaison with provinces by a consensus approach and the pace of change was linked therefore to the availability of buildings and of finance in provinces for employing teachers to implement

the proposed changes. New syllabuses and materials were to evolve nationally and through the management support of 19 provincial government education departments (see Appendix 1.1 Organisational Structure: Ministry of Education 1987).

Indigenous primary school teachers working for church or government and later in a combined Teaching Service (1970), had been a continuous stream of change agents in a country which had its first director of education in 1946 and political independence from Australia in 1975. The primary teachers were pathfinders to remote areas when postings to new regions meant travelling in the unknown. Their mobility and preparation put them in a position from earliest years to help integrate clan cultures in far-flung schools and later with the motivation of national unity prior to and since political independence. As versatile literate leaders for communities they were well accepted. However, in the 1990s there were modern security (Yeoman 1987b) and firearms risks, insufficient post-primary schooling and training opportunities and less generous support from parents: different challenges for the teacher. While each of these teacher's stories is worth hearing and many would be heroic, this thesis traces primary *teacher preparation* from 1946 through its *changes* to 1996, which is a significant developmental thread to unravel.

FIGURE 1.1: NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM - PROPOSED REFORM OF SCHOOLS

Old and New Structure Compared

THE OLD STRUCTURE (1970s)

Non-formal Tok Ples Pri Skul	
73% enrolment in	73 %
Community School	1
	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
33% Transition to	15%
Provincial High School	7
	8
	9
	10
10% Transition to	0.7%
National High School	11
	12

THE NEW STRUCTURE (1990s)

Universal access to Elementary School		Prep
		1
		2
100% Transition to		100%
Primary School	Lower	3
		4
		5
	Upper	6
		7
		8
50% Transition to		50%
Lower Secondary	Academic	9
	Vocational	10
	30% transition	15%
Upper Secondary	Academic	11
		12

Curriculum Development in Community Teachers' College in PNG
(SD & TD Curriculum & Inspections Section July 1996)

Source: Reform Awareness Page 13 (NDOE, CDD, 1994)

Community School (Primary) Teacher Education

For the staff members working in PNG community school (primary) teacher education, the year 1990 was a watershed for professional planning. There was an air of cautious optimism, because of acceptance of two major recommendations from a Task Force (McNamara 1989) by the National Education Board (NEB): first, the conclusion of the community school teachers' Certificate at the end of 1991 and simultaneously the beginning of a community school teachers' Diploma programme in each of the nine colleges and second, the acceptance of the introduction of a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE). In its meeting of June 1990 the NEB invited the Professor of Education from the University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG), who was an international specialist in teacher education, to chair an *ad hoc* committee, called the Association of Teacher Education (ATE), for the setting up of both the Diploma curriculum and NITE. The professor's acceptance of the offer was welcomed by the teacher education fraternity, acknowledging her earlier related overseas teacher education research (Avalos & Haddad 1979) and her recent local research involvement. It was also anticipated that the Professor's chairmanship would lead to recognition of the Diploma by UPNG and consequently its status upgraded. The ATE was seen as a precursor to building a supportive independent National Institute of Teacher Education. While the anticipated NES reform of schools was publicised tentatively in mid-1991 and the major implications for on-going work in teachers colleges became obvious over ensuing years, teacher educators had their own accelerant and immediate agenda for organisational change already launched. This is explained in the next four paragraphs.

An oversupply of community school teachers in 1985, had led to the National Education Board (NEB) instruction to the Teacher Education Division (TED) of the National Department of Education (NDOE) to plan to lengthen the college teacher preparation programme. The Secretary for Education, Mr Geno Roakeina, favoured commencing a three-year programme immediately at the large Madang government pre-service college. This was consistent with the government's perception that government's role in education was to trial, to evaluate, then to model for the different church agency colleges and for them to follow when they could, prior to or when a Government policy was announced. This was a significant point in time which will be highlighted later in the thesis. The church agency colleges were the majority. There was no overt tension between secular and religious institutions from the perspective of the colleges conducting community

school (primary) pre-service teacher preparation in 1985 (see Appendix 1.2 for location and leadership of colleges in 1993). The teachers' colleges comprised: one Government, four Roman Catholic, one Lutheran and Anglican, one Evangelical Alliance and one United Church, within the National Education System (NES). There was one college which chose not to join the NES, the Seventh Day Adventist. The Port Moresby Inservice College also conducted vocational centre pre-service teacher education - with entrance at Grade 10 as for community school teaching, rather than at Grade 12 the secondary teaching academic entrance level.

There was a delay in implementing the Secretary's proposal, due to consultative committees through which proposals travelled. A 'team' effort between the Secretary's professional officers in the Teacher Education Division (TED) and the principals of the mainly church agency colleges existed. An implicit central government approach, proven conducive to progress over the years, was to treat the ten colleges all equally. Church principals in conference favoured commencement of a Diploma at the same time as the government college. The in-country World Bank representative saw the outcome of this intention as a major national proposal for the following year and advised the Secretary against this policy change, believing the country was not at a stage where it could afford the luxury of three-year primary teacher preparation. It also was stated that there was no research which equated longer preparation programmes with improved teaching in the field, the Avalos and Haddad (1979) developing country research being located later. Thus, a brief window of opportunity was lost to commence longer training firstly on a small scale, in the single pre-service Government institution as indicated originally by the Secretary.

However presuming it was a matter of postponement only, preparatory research on which to base the impending PNG changes was launched by the NDOE in 1986. The research was financed by diverted inter-divisional recurrent funds, applications to both the World Bank and Australian aid for teacher education research money having been rejected. The Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) comprising four sub-projects provided four comprehensive field reports (Yeoman 1987; Ross 1988, 1989; Avalos 1989) and a final task force document with the detailed conclusive recommendations (McNamara 1989). The UPNG Professor, senior lecturers from the colleges, mostly Papua New Guineans and the NDOE policy and research staff carried out the field research projects. The divisional teacher education professional officers were part of the project steering committee.

Concurrently, interest was demonstrated by both the PNG Teachers' Association (PNGTA) working for industrial conditions of school teachers and college lecturers and the Office of Higher Education (OHE) exploring means of sharing resources between some of the seventy tertiary institutions under its authority.

After mid-1990, the Professor's leadership of the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) with the membership, mainly of all the principals, moved the initiative of working with college staff on their curriculum, from the Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education and divisional professional officers, NDOE, to the Professor and UPNG staff through the principals. In the first meetings of the ATE, July 1990, a booklet was written titled, *Towards a New Three Year Curriculum for Community School Teacher Training*, outlining the foundations and structure of the proposed three year programme. The National Teacher Education Board of Studies (NTEBS) modified the document slightly and the NEB approved it. A copy was distributed to each college staff member. Staff in rural colleges followed the brief framework, designed a programme and wrote course outlines for ATE during the latter half of 1990 in order for their college to qualify to implement the Diploma in 1991. Already in existence, proving challenging for the whole National Education System (NES) to integrate was the document, *Philosophy of Education for PNG* (Matane 1986), see Figure 1.2.

The Philosophy of Education for PNG

The Ministerial Committee which wrote the *Philosophy of Education* (1986) based its ideas on the Papua New Guinean Constitution - Part III Basic Principles of Government Division 1 - National Goals and Directive Principles (see Appendix 1.3). The *Papua New Guinea Constitution* (1975) detailed items under Integral Human Development, Equality and Participation, National Sovereignty and Self-Reliance, Natural Resources and Environment and Papua New Guinean Ways, as well as Basic Rights and Social Obligations. This Constitution was studied by student-teachers and generated indigenous pride.

Sir Paulias Matane was the Chairman of the Ministerial Committee and the Executive Officer was Mr Angus Ross. The Minister for Education was Aruru Matiabe and the Secretary Geno Roakeina. There were many national officers involved in the production of a 50 page document which was also studied by students. This was consistent with

FIGURE 1.2: PAPUA-NEW GUINEA PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION 1986

1. The philosophy of education for Papua New Guinea acknowledges the National Goals and Directive Principles in the National Constitution, and is based on integral human development:
   integral, in the sense that all aspects of the person are important;
   human in the sense that social relationships are basic; and
   development, in the sense that every individual has the potential to grow in knowledge, wisdom, understanding, skill and goodness.

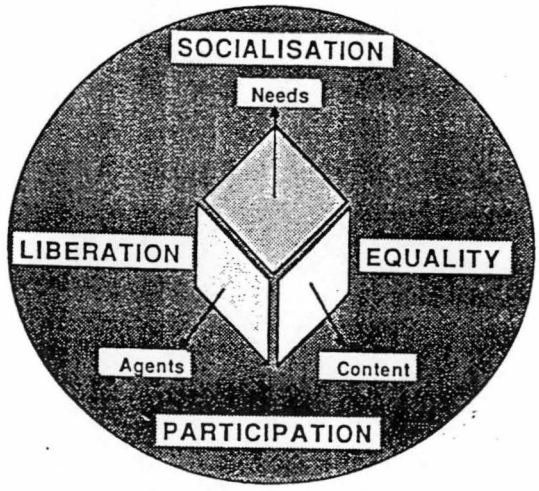
2. This philosophy is for every person to be dynamically involved in the process of freeing himself or herself from every form of domination and oppression so that each individual will have the opportunity to develop as an integrated person in relationship with others. This means that Education must aim for integrating and maximising:

   socialisation
   participation
   liberation
   equality

3. This philosophy is based on an awareness of human potential and the willingness to develop this potential so that each individual can solve his or her own problems, contribute to the common good of society and maintain, promote and improve learning and living.

4. This philosophy presumes the goodness and dignity of every person and so calls for the promotion of self and mutual respect, a sense of self-worth and self-discipline, and a sense of responsibility for oneself and for others.

5. The ultimate goal of this philosophy is for every person to receive an education which results in integral human development.



Source: Matane, 1986 Chairman, p6, p9

comparative education studies where the national culture was seen to mirror the education system. It gave a way of thinking about life, directions for living and learning. The Papua New Guineans were strongly conscious that traditional education had been for 'many thousands of years' and 'schools for one hundred years' (Matane 1986:3). They saw that traditionally many relatives and experiences contributed to a child's learning and that modern education must be planned in an integrated whole.

The round-up Report of the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) (McNamara 1989) also had as its Executive Officer, Mr Angus Ross, and by way of continuity the Philosophy was incorporated into the body and recommendations of the Report. The 'changes to policy of primary (community school) teacher education, as expressed in this report, are grounded (in the Philosophy)' (ibid 1989:38).

The Association of Teacher Education (ATE) document *Towards a New Three-Year Curriculum for Community School Teacher Education* (NEB/ATE 1990) provided the initial framework on which the colleges designed their own individual programmes. The document was based on the McNamara Report. It quoted the Secretary who wanted a new kind of teacher:

> The kind of teacher which the new programme hopes to produce is one concerned about his or her personal, professional and intellectual development. Such a teacher recognizes individual differences among children and is 'prepared and skilful enough to adjust the learning environment to meeting individual needs' (Tetaga 1989). Equally, such teachers need to be concerned for the development of moral and spiritual values within the school environment and outside of it.
>
> The type of teacher needed to perform the above functions is seen as one who is 'a self-reliant, independent professional, genuinely interested in the community in which he or she serves, and committed to education for resource development' (Tetaga 1989). This teacher is also one with a critical thinking approach to the curriculum and to the practice of teaching (NEB/ATE 90:1).

There was continuity from one document to the next influencing the intentions and content of the three-year Diploma. This intent is captured in the *Education Sector Review* (1991), 'Quality education is defined as an education which strengthens citizens' identification with, rather than alienation from, their own communities ...' (ibid 1991:5). Staff preparing for the implementation of the new Diploma were assisted by this consistent flow of philosophy.

Teacher Education Staff

Since 1972, indigenous college staff applicants had been nurtured through carefully organised associateship programmes and in-country and overseas university study. By 1990 the total number of nationals prepared for college teaching reached 70 percent of the total staffing with more enrolled in post-graduate studies. This was the watershed. There was now numerically a tilt towards PNG staffing and it was anticipated by the Teacher Education Division (TED) they could exert major influence on the Diploma innovation. In their own college they would be responsible to do the work for the university, through the Association of Teacher Education (ATE), to set up and then to teach an acceptable Diploma level programme. Previously, they had worked as a team of lecturers, from *across* colleges, *with* professional officers from the TED and other specialists. Lecturers in this team had regularly drawn up a set of common subject guidelines and teaching references. This was a 'bottom-up' curriculum approach. However, directions from ATE came to be through the principal, an administrator, resulting in each college's programme being very different. College lecturers in comparison saw this as a 'top-down' approach.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this thesis is to consider teacher education developments in Papua New Guinea (PNG) from 1946 to 1996. From 1990 and during 1991, 1992 and 1993 college staff were in remote provincial teachers' colleges designing and conducting their new three-year Diploma programme to provide a 'new kind' (Tetaga 1990) of community school teacher. Towards indicating the uniqueness of this activity, the procession of teacher education in Papua New Guinea will be described and analysed to give meaning and shape to the present teacher education situation. The approach to achieve the aim is with the following research questions forming the structures.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Four PNG based research areas are indicated by these questions.

1. What policies evolved to facilitate the implementation of teacher education from 1946 to 1996?
2. What policies supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these

relate to the work of the teacher education system?

3. What historically constituted pre-service programmes for preparing teachers, including the new three-year Diploma in Teaching (Primary)?
4. Was the three-year Diploma programme, as implemented by staff of colleges between 1991 and 1993, congruent with policy objectives?

Each Research Question is discussed in turn below.

The first Research Question highlights post-war teacher education through to 1996. The appointment of a Director for Education, official statements and different views of the beginnings of a home-grown system and the leadership roots of formal teacher preparation were identified. A set of teacher education conference documents for the period 1968-1993 served as a true record of trends, and implementation. They were used to enable location of what 'policies' guided that period. Formal directives, working procedures and the extent to which they were followed between 1994 and 1996 were investigated.

The second Research Question is historically parallel to the first and related to the staff in the teachers' colleges over time and when data were collected for the fourth question. Early teacher trainers were 'European'; then mainly expatriate Australians. Steps were taken to phase out the foreigners and to replace them with citizens of the country, a process which was called 'localisation' (DOE 1973b). The lecturers and staff of colleges provide a sequence which mirrors policies and attitudes at different periods, to a stage when the assumption is that the staff member is 'of the country'. Relevant secondary issues here include: How did the transformation from overseas to indigenous staffing occur? What anticipation was there of localisation? Who assisted with the undertaking of localisation? What lecturer preparation occurred in this phase?

The third Research Question is also historically parallel to the first and related to the college programmes over time and in the years the data are collected for the fourth question. Relevant questions here are: What teacher education was provided initially? How was the length of the programme decided? What curricular data were available for the lecturers? How was the content of the programme created and/or transmitted to college staff? From what philosophy of education did the content of the programme flow? In what ways was the new Diploma to be different to the former programme? What were its policy objectives?

The first three Research Questions provide data for the fourth question which studied the Diploma implementation, by the staff working in the classrooms of the colleges, over a three-year period. It used observations, reports and staff reflections to glean the essence of the research, that is, *what the staff did.* Relevant questions here include: How did the staff handle their new curriculum situation? What elements of the implementation were revealed? Was the outcome consistent with changes intended in the classroom? Was the implementation congruent with policy objectives?

CONCLUSION

The structure of the remainder of this thesis is as follows. Chapter Two provides foundations as background and Chapter Three is the literature review. Chapter Four describes the methods used to address the four Research Questions. Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight present the results of the research conducted as described in the method chapter. They are, in fact, the Research Questions presented separately. There is a conclusion at the close of each section to assist the reader by tying together relevant information. Chapter Nine is the discussion of the results and of the literature reviewed in Chapter Three and contains limitations and conclusions.

The next chapter, Chapter Two, provides teacher education foundations or the commencement of formal schooling. This is background to the setting up of an Administration, for both parts of the eastern half of the New Guinea island, and a Department of Education in 1946.

CHAPTER TWO

THE FOUNDATIONS OF PAPUA NEW GUINEAN EDUCATION FROM SETTLEMENT TO MID-1946

INTRODUCTION

In June, 1946 William C Groves, an Australian, was appointed the Director of Education in the Provisional Administration of the so-called Combined Territories. This was the beginning of a national Department of Education in Papua New Guinea and serves as a significant marker from which to look back at the foundations of formal schooling in this chapter, and to look forward at five decades of teacher education, in later chapters.

Before Self Government in 1973 and Independence in 1975, there were only a few indigenous activists (Kiki 1968; Olewale 1973; Somare 1975). In the early 1970s national unity literature and slogans were distributed by the administration representatives to generate in the people, especially the teachers and school children, a feeling of excitement for nationhood. The need to arouse interest in unity was there, despite Australia's progress in the definition and provision of a national infrastructure for public services. The opening up of the whole country was attempted by the late 1950s but this may have been mere contact in remote areas. Multiple indigenous groupings existed and clans named. Some of this segmentation, and the consequent competition, was local, with its genesis in the original migrations. The rugged tropical terrain resulted in hundreds of different languages and intricate village systems and the natural aggressive or timid characteristics of clans. Other aspects were part of the history of settlement, such as: the sub-divisions created by arbitrary foreign decisions (Morauta 1974; Willis 1974; Hogbin 1978), the New Guinean or Papuan identities and their trade languages, the disparate Christian mission locations and the perceived differences between coastal people and highlanders due to earlier and later modern advantages.

Indigenous settlement, according to highland archaeological evidence, was 'perhaps 50 000 years ago' by 'a hunter people' (Gash & Whittaker 1975:1). There is also archaeological evidence that migration was from the direction of Indonesia and that New Guinea was an area through which people moved to arrive at the Pacific Islands commencing 'about 1000 BC, and concluded about AD 1000' (Gash & Whittaker 1975:2). Agricultural systems date back to 6 000 BC and the later cultivation of sweet

potatoes as a staple food assisted survival in the highlands. The islands and coastline of Nova Ginea were known and mapped by South East Asian and European navigators for centuries (Jack-Hinton 1972). The Torres Strait formed a waterway to and from the Pacific. Traders to the area sought Bird of Paradise feathers, mother-of-pearl, sandal wood, bech-de-mer and tropical spices (Vaughan 1974; Abel & Abel 1991; Swadling 1996) (see Figure 2:1 for an orientation to the island's place in the region).

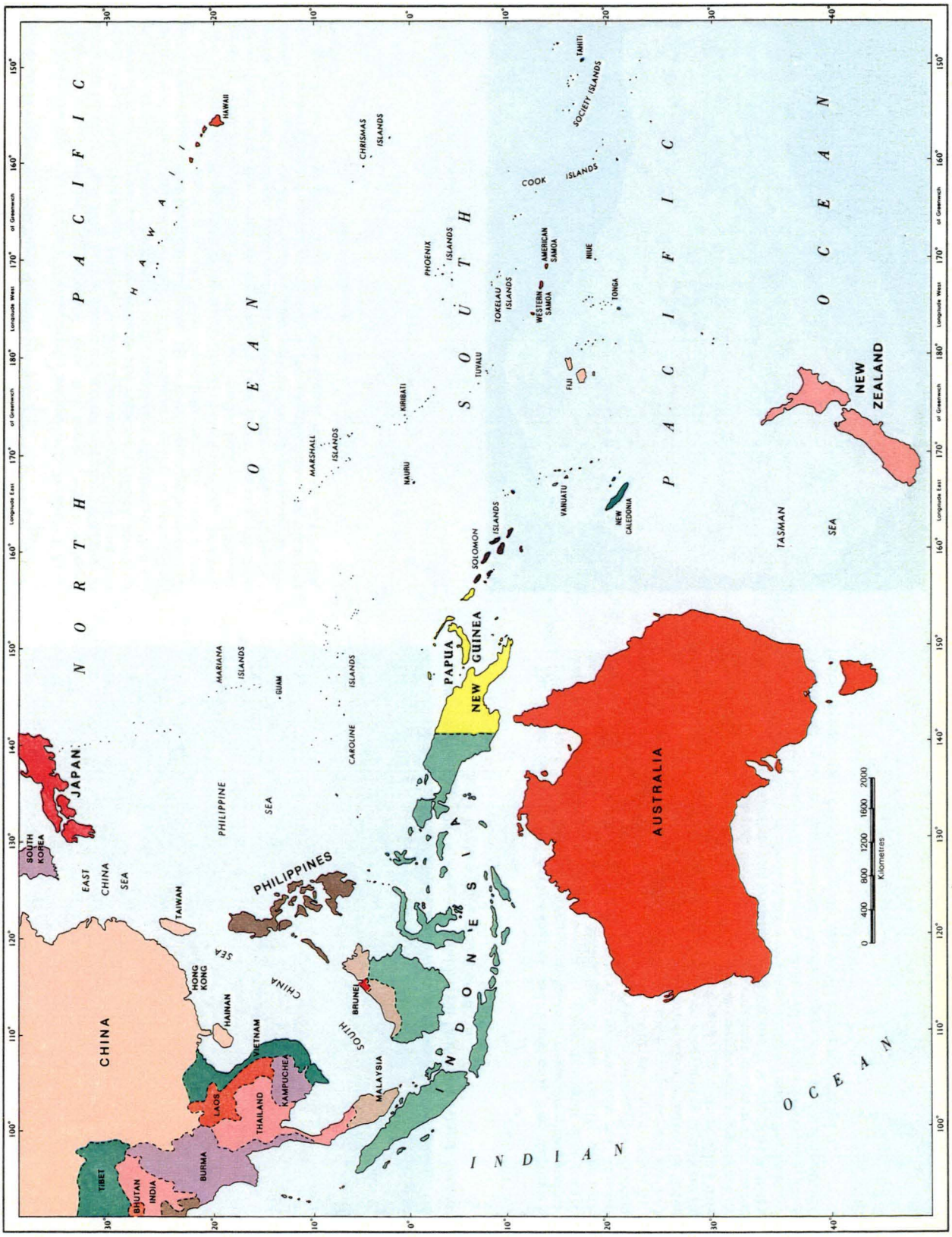
In the late 1700s the use of Australia as a penal colony by Britain, European competition for Pacific island trading posts and American whaling stations brought even more frequent expeditions to the New Guinea region. Coastal traffic for the local people may have meant sighting of strange passing sailing ships, occasional landings and confrontation, and, it is suggested, the opportunity to obtain copper, bronze and iron fittings and firearms from shipwrecks (Abel & Abel 1991). By the 1800s, there were reports of kidnapping of coastal dwellers to work in the Queensland colony's sugar plantations and of small Christian missions around the Torres Strait. In 1828, Holland annexed the western half of the New Guinean island to add to the Dutch East Indies Trading Company. This left the eastern half, which in 1884 was claimed by Germany in the north and Britain in the south. Captain John Moresby had already charted a large natural harbour in 1873 near what is now called Port Moresby, and rescued ill Polynesian missionary teachers (Inglis & Oram 1974). The settlement of 'outsiders' in the late nineteenth century then increased and the beginnings of formal schooling in PNG is taken from that point.

The next section of this chapter describes briefly the years after 1873 until 1946. The material seeks to indicate the early political borders and the work of the early governments and the Christian missions which are the roots of the modern Papua New Guinea schooling and teacher education systems. Policies that are an integral part of the development will be identified and changes are set out under the following themes:

GOVERNMENTS FROM 1884 TO 1945
- German New Guinea later Territory of New Guinea
- British New Guinea later Papua
- The Provisional Administration for the Territories of Papua and New Guinea 1945

FOUNDATIONS OF FORMAL SCHOOLING FROM 1873 TO 1946
- Christian Missions in British New Guinea later Papua
- Christian Missions in German New Guinea later Territory of New Guinea
- Early Government Schools in Papua
- Early Government Schools in New Guinea
- Post-World War II

FIGURE 2:1
A REGIONAL PERSPECTIVE



Papua New Guinea: Regional perspective

Ref: King, D & Ranck, S (1981 ? date not identified clearly)

GOVERNMENTS FROM 1884 TO 1945

German New Guinea - Territory of New Guinea

The first German settler-traders in the 1870s and 1880s were based at Matupit, the Duke of York Islands and the Blanche Bay area where the town of Rabaul grew around a volcanic harbour; and on the New Guinea mainland at Finschhafen and Madang. Their purpose, initially, was to commercialise tropical products such as coconuts. They used native labour on the plantations, at the ports and in the homes. In 1884, Germany claimed New Guinea (Moore, Griffin & Griffin 1984). When the German Government began to expand after 1899, it became more involved with the people. A kind of transition culture arose and a so-called 'kanaka hierarchy' was attempted. There was a 'luluai', a nominated or elected village authority figure; a 'tultul', a messenger or go-between able to speak to both 'whites' and villagers, and a 'heil tultul', a German trained village hygiene supervisor. Areas were brought under control by the operation of this organisation. Grouping of villages into 'unions' was attempted as there were many small hamlets. Missionaries and businessmen were given roles in labour recruitment, tax collection, health and law enforcement by the German administration (Rowley 1954; Hogbin 1978).

In 1914 Australia, being at war in Europe with Germany, occupied German New Guinea and permitted neutral German missionaries to remain; subsequently, a series of Australian military Administrators were appointed through to 1921. Punishment of even small crimes was severe and 'lashes' not uncommon until 1922 (Gash & Whittaker 1975:190-191). Luluais could be despots. Even mission school teachers were said to be part of the magistracy and missionaries often worked through the luluais. Decisions about traditional life were still in the hands of the elders, or the sorcerers who were antagonistic to the new systems (Vulliamy & Carrier 1985). Complex loyalties proved difficult for both government officers and villagers to manage.

Under a League of Nations mandate, Australia remained responsible and the region after World War I became the Mandated Territory of New Guinea with three long-serving Australian civil government Administrators. The Germans were authoritarian but tried to 'fuse' European law and native customs. The Australians were comparatively less demanding in their approach, although more severe than the administration in Papua.

World War II spread to the Pacific and Rabaul was captured by the Japanese in 1942. Armed forces infiltrated the islands and mainland. Villages and towns were destroyed, while overseas soldiers, civilians and natives fought and died together (Nelson 1982). Japan surrendered in 1945 and a Provisional Administration was set up combining both the Mandated Territory and Papua for the first time. Colonel Jack Murray became the first civil Administrator of the whole Territory in June 1946, based in Port Moresby.

British New Guinea - Papua

Peter Scratchley was appointed as Her Majesty's Commissioner, in 1884. He established Port Moresby as the seat of Government for British New Guinea and seven more Administrators came and went. In 1907, J H P Murray (known as Sir Hubert Murray), an Australian judge in the Administration since 1904 and an Irish Roman Catholic, was appointed Acting Administrator. He later became Lieutenant-Governor of Papua and died in 1940 at Samarai aged seventy-eight years. His nephew, Administrator H Leonard Murray, replaced him for only two years, until February 1942.

In 1905 the newly federated colonies of the Commonwealth of Australia accepted the Papua Act and the transfer of control of Papua from Britain and was responsible until Japan declared war in 1941. Originally, British claims were because of security pressures from their Australian colonies. Britain did not want any more colonies but the policy for Papua was one of protection of the people and their land (Lewis 1996). In the early years, pacification implied intrusion to unknown and often hostile surroundings. Conversion to Christianity, and attention to 'civilising' the native people, were consistent with the philosophies held by both governments and the missions (Gammage 1998).

Sir Hubert Murray was criticised for 'paternalistic' approaches to the natives during his 33 years in office, but a later 'nation builder', Sir Paul Hasluck when so labelled for his work as Minister of Territories is cited in Porter as responding:

> We should remember that paternalism in its true nature is good ... Paternalism becomes oppressive if it is carried too far and for too long, and if it is exercised not for the good of the children but for the comfort and well-being of the father. (Porter 1993:119)

In 1924 Murray insisted that there was no attempt to include administration of indigenous justice nor was there any primitive native law existing. Murray heard all application of law and punishment against natives and saw it went through the same procedures as for

non-natives. The degree to which the natives understood the British law and the alternative of local courts, only became issues in a later era.

The rubber plantation industry attracted Australian settlers to Papua. The natives became indentured labourers usually working under poor conditions. The Native Labour Ordinance was meant to protect both worker and employer but it was difficult to implement and supervise. The 'Anglo-Papuans' (Lewis 1996:104) who pioneered rubber and copra, tried also to make commercially worthwhile plantations of coffee, tea, cotton, sisal hemp and of desiccated coconut and lived on widely scattered holdings. The settlers had their own disappointments and had seen Papua as their future home, misjudging the Australian Government's intentions. Ironically the Government protected the indigenous peoples' land rights in Papua from outside settlers while the opposite was the case for Aboriginals within Australia (Lewis 1996).

The Japanese threat resulted in the forming of the Papuan Administrative Unit and the New Guinea Administrative Unit which were combined in April 1942 as the Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU). This meant Papua and New Guinea had unified administrative leadership. ANGAU, a military government, served the purposes of war management with little time for attention to broader civil government tasks. It operated until the transfer of status in 1945 to a Trust Territory of the United Nations in the hands of the Australian Government of the day. While the new leadership, Colonel Jack Murray (not related to Hubert or Leonard), oversaw the two regions, each half had separate histories which kept them different and exclusive social entities. It was not a socially 'unified' country.

The Provisional Administration for the Territories of Papua and New Guinea 1945

The post-war Labour Prime Minister of Australia, Mr J B Chifley, spoke about increased finances for, and a new approach to, Papua and New Guinea, but other priorities in Australia meant slow efforts towards change. Meanwhile, the Provisional Administration had immediate chaos to handle including: towns, villages, plantations and roads that were destroyed; troops and prisoners-of-war to be cared for and repatriated; massive amounts of lethal war equipment in the jungle and along the coasts that needed guarding and decommissioning; Japanese sympathisers among the natives who had developed affinity with the invaders and whose behaviour was unpredictable; village food gardens depleted

and the menfolk away on war duties; building materials scarce where needed and valuable wartime facilities deteriorating in remote locations. In addition to these issues there was a shortage of an organised work force (Nelson 1982).

In June 1946 there were 643 government officers on duty in Papua and New Guinea filling about one third of available positions. The previous year there had been 2 000 ANGAU military personnel. Management and implementation conflict prevailed between experienced pre-war staff who were vital because of their local knowledge, and new Australian recruits. There were also differing attitudes between the government officers previously employed in New Guinea and those who had worked in Papua. Wariness existed between the Minister for External Territories and his department in Canberra and public servants in Port Moresby. The Canberra department had limited first-hand experience of the Territories. There was a new Australian Administrator, whose tasks included oversight of the various Christian missions and reporting needs and progress to the United Nations through the Australian Prime Minister.

The Minister for External Territories in the Labour Government, Mr E J Ward, speaking in the Australian Federal Parliament in July 1945 gave the direction of future policy when he introduced the PNG Provisional Administration Bill as follows:

> This Government is not satisfied that sufficient interest has been taken in the Territories prior to the Japanese invasion, or that adequate funds had been provided for their development and the advancement of the native inhabitants. Apart from the debt of gratitude that the people of Australia owe to the natives of the Territory, the Government regards it as its bounden duty to further to the utmost the advancement of the natives, and considers that, that can be achieved only by providing facilities for better health, better education and for greater participation by the natives in the wealth of their country and eventually its government. (Jinks 1972:979)

This study pursues the 'better education' element, which has a vital link with all modern 'development' and 'advancement', and turns now to the foundations of schooling.

FOUNDATIONS OF FORMAL SCHOOLING 1873 TO 1946

Christian Missions in British New Guinea later Papua

All villagers had their own ancient learning systems as part of cultural continuity and community discipline (Whiteman 1973), while superstition was an implicit part of the

isolated island life (Fortune 1936, 1963; Bateson 1965; Mead 1975). Until World War II, the intrusion of a succession of foreign governments, with their own purposes and demanding new ways impacted on the natives in every contact, especially those near towns. The young men were vulnerable and their absence from, or return to, home communities with new ideas, could be disruptive to the traditional village life. However, it was the tenacity and continuity of the missionaries endeavouring to spread Christian values to members of fearful subsistence families, especially the children, that was a stimulant for learning. Formal instruction was an immediate part of the dissemination theory that missionaries brought with them and attempted to implement (Gray 1989).

A report to the Administrator from a senior officer in PNG soon after World War II read as follows:

> In the course of my survey of schools in Papua, I have met with about twelve Native teachers who despite their inadequate education and training, have shown determination, enthusiasm and persistence, and have possessed such teaching skill, that they have managed to prevent their schools from going downhill, either as to standard or numbers, during the difficult years of the Pacific War when to a great extent they lacked supervision from any white man. (Wedgwood 1946:1)

A closer look at the missionaries at work is needed to answer questions about pre-War 'education and training' of these Papuan teachers.

The Christian missions were working in the Pacific and in the north of Australia prior to the annexation of British New Guinea in 1884. The London Missionary Society (LMS) spread from Port Moresby along the southern coast in the west to the Fly River and in the east to Samarai. After negotiations with Administrator McGregor in 1891, it was arranged for the Methodists to work out from Dobu Island and the Anglicans across the north-east tail of the mainland of Papua from Dogura, a distance of 300 miles of which parts were very rugged and other parts swamp country (Gray 1989). The Roman Catholics, since 1855, had been at Woodlark Islands and had extended from Thursday Island, north to Yule Island on the Papuan coast and from there to the mountainous hinterland.

For the first years of permanent settlement by foreigners until the Commonwealth of Australia accepted responsibility for Papua, government and missionaries worked amicably. The Administrators saw the missionaries assisting with contact, often sought advice from them and praised their hard won achievements (Cleland 1983). It was not an easy life and field workers and their families often died due to tropical disease, accidents,

attacks and isolation from assistance. From the miscellany of writings it is possible to gather impressions of the simple schools of the times, realising that the missionaries, government officers and private investors were coming from a conservative, limiting view of 'race' in their own home societies (Wedega 1981; Nelson 1982; Roberts 1996).

The London Missionary Society (LMS) pastors, McFarlane and Murray, relieved Polynesian teachers in Papua. More South Sea Mission teachers came and many stayed, including the respected Raratongan, Ruatoka (1846-1903) (Cocks 1941). The Reverend W G Lawes, with his wife and Cook Islander missionaries, settled in 1873 at what was to become Hanuabada, Port Moresby; he stayed for 32 years. With practical initiative he quickly imported a small print press, produced an alphabet and Motu language Bible story readers for schools. In 1883 he established a 'college' for training Papuan teachers at Hanuabada. He spent the last ten years (1896-1906) of his service as principal at Vatorata, near Kapa Kapa, where the training was shifted in 1894 (Gray 1989). The Reverend Chalmers (Langmore 1974) joined him in 1877 and was a keen explorer, making new contacts to the west of Port Moresby until in 1901 when he was killed by native warriors. The Reverend Charles Abel, who also arrived in 1891, went to Samarai and then to Kwato. He, with members of his family, taught a wide variety of new skills to the natives, including cricket, boat building and domestic and trade skills. His family brought individual native people from the village environment to create a self-sufficient community at Kwato based on Christian values. Other churches sent their workers to learn trade skills at Kwato and to return to teach at their own mission stations.

An Australian Methodist sister writing about Dobu Island duties in the late 1890s said:

> (The new teacher) found her days fully occupied with school teaching, village visits, study of the language and sewing and every three weeks was responsible for the housekeeping at the sisters' home, looking after the fourteen girls and their work and play, conducting prayers with them morning and evening and occasionally acting as head nurse to the five (orphan) babies. (Sr Julia 1907:11)

Sister Julia, in her book, used terms like 'savages', 'heathen', 'primitive' and 'child-like', describing what she saw as the indigenous lifestyle and revealed the prevailing negative attitudes to natives of the era. She reported that the children were hard to discipline and prizes were needed to entice the children to attend school and that there was an exodus of children during class if a pig was chased in the village or the men came home from fishing with a turtle. Pet pigs were brought to school and time taken out of school to feed them. She wrote that the children found reading, writing and sewing easy

and tells of them, '... counting on their fingers and toes, and if their own would not supply the number required going on to a neighbour to meet the lack' (Sr Julia 1907:14). This mission teacher, speaking about boarding school trials and the difficulties of getting schoolgirls to do their housework and behave themselves quietly, found consolation in that they were being, '... kept from the terrible heathen practices of the village ...' (Sr Julia 1907:15) by the imposed new routines.

Between the two World Wars there were new Christian church agencies which sent missionaries to Papua. The Seventh Day Adventists (SDA) came in 1920 to Bisiatabu on the Sogeri plateau behind Port Moresby, to Bougainville in 1924 and to Marshall Lagoon, Papua in 1930. They were very keen on developing like-minded independent communities and starting agricultural projects which thrived. Their medical services, nurse training and hospitals flourished. Small religious schools and choirs accompanied all their endeavours (Ryan 1972; Kettle 1979).

The Unevangelized Fields Mission (UFM) sent Albert Drysdale, who in early 1932 successfully negotiated for Madiri at the mouth of the Fly River, which was previously an LMS Papuan plantation project. He chose as helpers 12 Gogodala men, who came from land on the northern bank of the river. Over the following eight years, despite extreme poverty and living hardships and finally the death of his wife, he demonstrated pioneering skills, bravery and determination. He received requests from indigenous people for missionaries and then supported the new UFM personnel when they came from Australia or New Zealand. Progress included the establishment of small stations at Balimo in 1934, Awaba in 1935, Bamu River in 1936, Wasua in 1937 and Suki in 1941. By the beginning of 1942, when war evacuation was required, there were 21 missionaries, six bases, more than six indigenous church elders and some 40 recently baptised followers. An outdoor assembly of 1 000 people for a service was not unusual. There was a UFM school for girls at Wasua by 1940 where slates and slate pencils were used. The Kiwai language prayer and hymn books were available from the well established LMS workers as well as scripture pictures for Bible stories. The UFM sent three men to learn boat building at Kwato mission (Prince & Prince, 1981; Prince & Prince, 1991).

An evangelist's access came via oral invitation from a member of a tribe, then travelling back to the hamlet, being given land to build a bush material house and a larger room for schooling or services. The missionary soon began to learn a local lingua franca or

language. Simplicity and sincerity appealed to the people, but the missionaries' death was possible at the hand of those whose sorcery and power was threatened. Missionaries knew their own vulnerability. Some died violently during first contact and disease took the weakest, but the comparative sophistication of occasional experiences for the native people are glimpsed in posed photographs of the day, e.g., wearing a suit and tie or a long modest frock; with crew members on English sailing ships; with a mission family; wearing uniforms and hair cut short (Gash & Whittaker 1975; Nelson 1982; Wagner & Reiner 1986; SVD/SSpS 1996; Abel & Abel 1991).

Churches adapted their principles; for example a man with two wives could be baptised and be a church elder but not a pastor. However, idol worship, head hunting, forced marriage, sorcery, drinking intoxicating mixtures and dancing were not acceptable. While the missions realised change would mean a new lifestyle for the natives, it is unknown whether they realised the extent of the discipline implicit in the indigenous society and the consequences of disrupting this (Prince & Prince 1981; Porter 1993).

Christian Missions in German New Guinea later Territory of New Guinea

The outer islands were original bases, which were succeeded in stages by bases spreading along the north coast from east to west, Morobe, Madang and Sepik and gradually inland. French Roman Catholic Marists came to Umboi Islands near Siassi in 1848, but due to illness and deaths withdrew and were replaced by Italian members of religious orders between 1852 and 1855. They were unable to survive the climate and develop a station. The Marists were at Bougainville Islands in 1899 and by 1905 two natives were baptised. The Reverend George Brown from Samoa was sponsored by the Australian Methodists in 1875 to Rabaul on the island of New Britain as were the German Sacred Heart brothers in 1882. To reduce the competitiveness, the German administration identified two separate land areas for these two missions from which they spread to local villages (Adela 1971; Mennis 1972).

The Siassi Islands off the Morobe coast from Finschhafen, were an on-going isolated challenge to the Lutherans: the war, then the senior missionary's death by a falling tree in 1928, and pressure for inland highland development where the Catholic mission was competing. This led finally to the Australian Lutheran staff being invited in 1936 to support the Siassi station. They assisted with inland evangelisation when safety

restrictions on remote Menyamya were lifted (Wagner & Reiner 1986).

On the mainland, the Lutheran Neuendettelsau missionary, Reverend Johann Flierl, a Bavarian previously working in Australia with Aborigines, moved to Finschhafen in 1886, then selected a base at the mouth of the Mape River. Flierl separated his work from government policies in the eyes of the local people remaining there when the government shifted their station from Finschhafen due to disease. He was joined by successive helpers - indigenous Methodists from New Britain, his wife and, one by one, new German missionaries. He made use of clan connections and of trading islands to spread Christian values to Tami Island in 1889, Sattleburg in 1892, Ngasengalutu in 1902 and Heldsbach in 1904. It took 13 years before the first Lutheran baptisms were celebrated. These centres provided practice teaching schools for Dregerhafen trainees in the 1950s.

The Russian explorer, Baron Mikluho-Maklai, made three visits to the Madang area between 1860 and 1876 and walked inland to the Finisterre Range. He reported to the Australian government on native land rights, slavery, firearms and intoxicants (Maclay 1974). Later Roman Catholic and Rhenish Lutheran missionaries to the area had spontaneous acceptance and benefited from the goodwill to the Russian. However, the story of missions here is sprinkled with illness, rivalry and misunderstanding. Tragic deaths by drowning, murder, malaria and other diseases between 1894 and 1904 at the Lutheran stations on Karkar, Siar, Malala and Bogadjim reduced the Madang missionaries who only counted one baptism after sixteen years (Wagner & Reiner 1986; SVD/SSpS 1996).

The Lutherans were keen to introduce formal schooling and tried to recruit LMS teachers from Papua. In 1912 they brought six Samoan pastors, of whom one died and from whose families more wives and children died by the end of 1917. After further slow progress, transfer in 1921 of the old German Lutheran property, to new Australian and American mission organisations, was necessary. By 1922, 41 outposts and 1 500 native Lutheran members were counted in the Madang region (Wagner & Reiner 1986). The Roman Catholic missionaries competed with the Lutherans for adherents in most areas, returning to the town of Madang by 1899 (SVD/SSpS 1996; SSpS 1999).

Tumleo Island off Aitape, on the northern coast of the mainland, between the Sepik River and the Dutch border, gained six Roman Catholic brothers and priests from Germany and

Holland in 1896. They brought pre-fabricated housing with them and moved by small sailing boats between the nearby islands. They found children were happier playing and reluctant to go to school but commenced teaching '...enough knowledge of Jesus and the Gospel ... ready for baptism. There was little hope of converting adults - pagan ways were still firmly entrenched' (SVD/SSpS 1996:8). Two fifteen year old students from Tumleo Central School, who spoke fluent German, were taken to Europe by the priests in 1907. One died there and one returned to New Guinea and became a catechist.

The first two Holy Spirit Sisters arrived from Europe on 26th March 1899, to take the responsibility of schools from the brothers (SSpS 1999). The brothers who established six new stations along the north west Aitape coast and whose expertise included geology, surveying and mapping, agriculture, music, linguistics, medicine and trades, were very serious explorers and settlers. By 1914, 86 brothers had come, 18 departed and 17 died mainly of malaria. Sister Cherubina Frings ran the first printing press in New Guinea on Tumeleo Island in 1907. A sawmill, workshops, a hospital, a cathedral, a wharf and rice and vegetable growing were signs of some of their determined activities that lead expansion and involvement at Madang in 1914. The sisters continued in schools, working in 1913 with government officers on a draft secondary school syllabus (SVD/SSpS 1996).

World War I resulted in chaos for the Catholic north-west coastal expansion. Thirty-three boarding schools with over 2 000 students were closed. After the war, German New Guinea became a Trust Territory and all German and Austrian nationals had to leave the Territory and forfeit land and possessions. Many of the native labourers and their families over the initial 20 years had been given catechist training and in the absence of overseas staff became the ones to spread the gospel.

In the 1930s missionaries were again permitted to return and up to 1937, new stations opened, each staffed by a priest and a brother. Brothers taught religion in the schools, helped with evangelising, building and running plantations and also were aviators. There were special catechist schools along the Sepik River and at Kairiru Island, a base near Wewak. Mass baptisms meant large groups of villagers came to the station for long periods and returned again for further teaching before baptism. The missionaries primarily wanted adherents and recorded their progress by baptisms, numbers of children in their schools and language groups won for their goals

At the same time, Australian goldminers were venturing into the highlands along with government patrols. The dangers and difficulties of these 'opening up' patrols could not be fully comprehended in Australia (Sinclair 1973, 1984). The missionaries were invited into the Eastern Highlands in 1933 only six months after the enterprising Australian Leahy brothers' exploration. Father William Ross was one of the first missionaries at Mt Hagen in the Western Highlands in March 1934. In the same year, with carriers and Papuan native constabulary, Hides and O'Malley were also on exploratory patrols in Papua across the nearby mountains (Hides 1936). Lutherans were scouting in the highlands and small airstrips were built in hazardous country, with the first flight occurring in 1935. After missionaries were killed by warriors, restrictions were placed by government on outsiders going freely to the highlands. Groups of attacking tribesmen were shot-at for the protection of transient patrol parties, with many individuals mortally wounded.

By the end of 1942, after the building of bush-material churches and some settlement, the Japanese invasion began and all missionaries were taken quickly from the highland districts by the Australian Military Command in January 1943. The established north coast and islands missionaries, however, from Aitape, Wewak, Madang to Morobe, New Britain and Bougainville were less lucky. Half of the missionaries died, some in very bad conditions (Aerts 1994). When the Americans finally rescued survivors, many were taken to their Dregerhafen Army hospital close to Finschhafen. Despite this, the attitude often expressed by church workers was that their work was only 'interrupted' by the war (SVD/SSpS 1996).

These original mission bases identified here in this foregoing description, spawned schools and small centres for training teachers, some of which were familiar names of the 1950s and 1960s. They remained part of the traditions of the consolidated colleges in Papua and New Guinea after 1970 (Table 2:1 and Appendix 2.1).

Early Government Schools in Papua

Administrator McGregor had declared in the 1890s that it was compulsory for any child living within two miles of an English-speaking school to attend. In Papua, the progress of schooling was influenced by the long-serving Administrator, Hubert Murray, whose close attention and long-term concern was for the protection of the natives. Australia's unwillingness to allocate funding and insistence that obtaining and maintaining control

TABLE 2.1: EARLY MISSION AND GOVERNMENT CENTRES THAT BECAME TEACHERS' COLLEGES

Original Centres	1996 Colleges	Place
Lutheran Hopoi 1924 Gelem-Siassi 1950 Heldsbach 1914 Rintebe 1957 Amron 1934 Anglican Dogura (Papua) 1898	Balob (Lutheran and Anglican)	Lae (Morobe Province)
Methodist Duke of York Islands 1882 Kabakada 1890 Vunarima 1958 Ruatoka (Papua) 1894	Gaulim (United Church)	Kokopo (East New Britain Province)
Roman Catholic Asitavi (Bougainville Girls) Kieta (Bougainville Men) 1899 Yule Island (Papua) 1892 Vuvu (Men) 1901 Vunakanau (Men) Kabaleo (Women)	Kabaleo (Catholic)	Kokopo (East New Britain Province)
Roman Catholic Kairiu Island (Men) 1937 Kunjingini 1955	Kaindi (Catholic)	Wewak (East Sepik Province)
Roman Catholic Fatima 1934	Holy Trinity (Catholic)	Mount Hagen (Western Highlands Province)
Roman Catholic Alexishafen 1908 Sek 1909 Lutheran Amele 1923 Karkar 1924 Government Madang 1964 Manus 1955	Madang (Government)	Madang (Madang Province)
Unevangelized Fields Mission (UFM) later Asian Pacific Christian Mission (APCM) Awaba (Papua) 1965	Dauli (Evangelical Alliance)	Tari (Southern Highlands Province - Papua)
Seventh Day Adventist Kabiufa 1950 Kambubu 1936	Sonoma (SDA)	Kokopo (East New Britain Province
Government Malaguna 1934 Dregerhafen 1949 Goroka 1959 Popondetta (Papua) 1955	Port Moresby (PMTC) (Government) later Port Moresby Inservice College (PMIC) (Government)	Port Moresby (National Capital District)

and 'opening up' the whole country was a priority over education, led to innovation. The Administrator devised and implemented head tax for the purpose of native education and welfare and developed a system for distribution of grants to missions and establishment of government schools. Sir Hubert used it as his 'wisdom and humanity directed' (Dickson 1976:28). Over time, two-thirds of the Education Fund was used for such Papuan advancements as a government anthropologist 1921, village water supplies 1922, footballs for village games 1926, Papuan School Reader 1928, publication of the Papuan Villager Newspaper 1929 to 1941, Papuan Junior Reader 1928 and encouragement of village crafts 1934 and 1936. The Education fund was also spent on salaries for teachers, food for students, school materials, and maintenance of staff houses. His priorities were agricultural, technical and general education including English language.

Australia did not acknowledge a colonial responsibility for Papua but professed theirs was a civilising role, albeit carried out with colonial attitudes. Murray persisted with his efforts to create an education policy. He was forced to work through successive Ministers of Territories in the Australian Government and was swimming against the tide of racial prejudice both in Australia and Papua. He did not have the finance, resources or freedom to plan. World War I intervened and it was 1920 before the Education Ordinance appeared and evolved in 1922, becoming an opportunity for the first system of native education. However, neither Papuans nor missionaries were officially consulted in this development and there was little actual change before 1941. There were two kinds of assistance to missions for education. One was assistance to schools to commence successive grades or Standards One to Five, which was the highest level in Murray's system, through to 1941. The second was per capita grants for success in school examinations (Ryan 1972; Chatterton 1980).

In Sir Hubert Murray's final written statements, as late as 1938, he was against the creation of a native intelligentsia and preferred the diffusion of an elementary education for all. This was, as a consequence, the functioning education policy. He indicated in his government reports and academic addresses that he was constantly learning from his own experience with the Papuans and was trying to change the attitudes of other Europeans. Throughout his stewardship, Murray still had to cope with international questions about the mental capacity and proper place of 'the native'. Due to the prevailing superior attitudes of the Australian to the Papuan, Murray endured ridicule for his claims about the Papuans' ability to show gratitude, love, self-reliance, academic aptitude, initiative and

persistence (Ryan 1972). In 1932 Murray reported proudly to the Prime Minister that a native had been given a job of responsibility with finance as a tax collector because Papuans, prior to that time, had not been trusted with secrets and money. Percy Chatterton, a mission teacher in 1938 calculated that of 250 of his ex-students, half were in European employment - 60 of these had not changed jobs; 39 were in government jobs and 21 in commercial employment (Chatterton 1980). However, schooling did not guarantee jobs and according to Wedgwood (1946) some natives had gone through school but not found employment, other than physical labour.

Administrator Murray had the prejudice of the era with which to contend, both within the Australian government and from the missions and settlers in Papua and thus he grappled with the dilemma of how fast to proceed with education. Most missions sought more to protect against outside erosion of Christian attitudes than to allow freedom for wider experience. They encouraged self-employed farming rather than employment as a clerk, a tradesman or a policeman. Sir Hubert Murray appears in the end, to have allowed the community's unawareness of the potential of the indigenous people to determine the extent of schooling during his long term in office.

Early Government Schools in New Guinea

Some of the attitudes of the German Administration in New Guinea were similar to those in Papua. They praised the missionaries for what they were doing in schooling and seemed somewhat wary of them. On the other hand, mission refusal to abandon teaching in 'tok pisin' (Michalic 1980) or the vernacular lead to the opening of government schools. It was estimated at one stage that 80 percent of the New Guinean missionaries were non-English speakers. In 1907, 92 pupils were taken into a government school at Namanula, Rabaul, with two European and two native teachers. The elementary classes were in vernacular, German was taught as a second language study, and in the higher classes as the language of instruction. The German Administration tried by example to infer that schools, where only vernacular was used, were not good enough. With German language the natives could get jobs outside the mission station and this was thought by the missions to be something to guard against, as they feared losing their converts to employment in the 'outside' world, away from the mission culture.

The change of government from German to Australian after World War I brought in

another communications dimension. The Australian Administration pushed for the Education Ordinance of 1922, whereby education was under the authority of the Administrator. It entitled him to establish government schools, prescribe the nature and standard of instruction, make provision for teachers and control expenditure from the Native Education Trust Fund. The way was opened, but only a few subsequent results eventuated. These were:

- An elementary school, a technical school and a domestic arts school were opened then in 1924 combined into one school at Malaguna village.

- Schools were opened at Kavieng, New Ireland; Chimbu, Eastern Highlands; and Nodup, Pila Pila and Tavui villages near Rabaul. In 1924 there was a total of 146 pupils and by 1940, 588 pupils.

- Financial provision until 1933 was through the 10 shillings annual native tax, later reduced to 6 shillings paid by employers. Annual expenditure on education between 1923 and 1940 was £7,000 for an average pupil enrolment of 312, which was more per pupil than for mission pupils in New Guinea, or in Papua under Murray's subsidy scheme.

- The curriculum in Administration schools was similar to Australian schools with the use of English as the language of instruction and some additional native crafts. Two pupils were sent to school in Australia in 1928.

- Teachers were recruited from Australia and some graduates from the schools stayed on at school to assist as helpers. The trainee teachers were few in number, two to five in each of the years 1932 -1941. In 1927 two of these graduates were the first to be employed in Administration schools.

- The technical school graduates found work easily in many different practical capacities. The standard of their carpentry was praised. The high quality of their technical work was because schools specialised and spent little time on academic school studies.

Although the Australian government had authority and announced intentions, it did not

have enough will to get under-way with developments. The immediate problem was that the German missionaries were entrenched, had life commitments, were well-educated and skilled and operating with a common goal. Co-operating with government reduced their own purposes and power, thus the real power for education reform still lay with them. The government, therefore, sought advice from overseas. Colonel J Ainsworth, a former Native Commissioner in Kenya, reported on the administration of the Mandate generally in 1924 and recommended stronger emphasis on tropical agriculture. The Australian government also took up this point and criticised the emphasis on teaching trades. The Kerevat Agriculture school was opened in 1929 offering a three year agriculture programme for native youth. It was announced that government schools would be opened in every District and their graduates would be sent to a central school at Malaguna. This, however, did not occur.

In 1928, the government announced it would make a study of native education in other countries. The Administrator appointed a committee to examine New Guinea needs, with Mr McKenna, Director of Education, Queensland, to chair the committee. The recommendations in August 1929 included criticisms that the worthwhile educational policy that existed since 1922, had not been carried out. McKenna's report was officially accepted as a basis for future policy, including suggestions for widening opportunities and improvement for native education. However, the Depression in Australia meant the only changes made were acceptance of the Torres Strait Island syllabus and the recruitment of three teachers from Queensland in 1931.

The Administration explored possibilities of missions taking over the entire education of natives in 1933. A committee was formed in 1934 to examine this idea in more detail, but the idea was withdrawn in 1935. In 1936 that committee was replaced by a 'special' committee appointed by the Legislative Council. They recommended Administration control of education and asked for more time to study the situation. This 'special' committee ceased functioning in 1937 due to the absence of four members and lapsed the next year with the expiry of the term of appointment of that Legislative Council. The new Council did not re-form a committee but the Administrator wrote a detailed report of the difficulties that it faced including -

> ...continued failure to provide positive policy directions in education... having regard to the local conditions... and being essential that true foundations be laid if success is to attend the policy so formulated... . (Dickson 1972:321)

The biggest critic of the pace of change was the Permanent Mandate Commission of the United Nations, where one member stated there was no other mandate making such slow progress. W Groves, teacher and anthropologist, published his view of needs in Papua and New Guinea (Groves 1936) and suggested a system for native education.

The opposition of Australians to natives having education, due to the belief that they were unable to handle the knowledge, meant constructive pressure was not put on the Australian government for funds. At the same time, students at some mission schools were not gaining academic schooling and it was known that academic standards were poor. However, school standards as criteria and policy requiring use of English caused mission leadership to begin to communicate about changes within their own organisations and with the Territory government.

Post-World War II

During the Japanese occupation of New Guinea, 1941 to 1944, the area was affected badly and schooling was disrupted although teachers were not recruited for war service. There were evacuations, the sinking of ships with civilians and missionaries aboard, executions, hunger and hardships for native people and missionaries. The natives learned more about other people through many new visual experiences and responsibilities brought about by the war (Wedgwood 1946; Hogbin 1958; Robinson 1981). Civil government was replaced by Military government, the Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU) and while native schooling was stated to be essential, in practice it was overlooked, or discontinued.

Education began again at a vacated army hospital at the end of the Kokoda Trail, Sogeri, in the hills behind Port Moresby which was firstly an army school for clerks in 1943. ANGAU Captain F Boisen was instructed by Brigadier D Cleland (Cleland 1983:46) to get it functional with 'educated soldiers' (see Plates 2.1 (a) and (b)). Later, Sogeri became a central boarding school and some school materials were made available. This school formed the basis of the first government Papuan teacher training centre from 1945 (Taylor 1984).

After the war the Australian Labour government introduced the idea of a 'new deal' for the indigenous people through the Papua-New Guinea Provisional Administration Act

1945-46. Education was to be 'controlled and directed by the Administration'. The missions were acknowledged as having a part to play, but mission autonomy was on the decline. The Minister for External Affairs called a meeting in Sydney of mission representatives and included the newly appointed Director, Mr W Groves and his wife, Doris, earlier an LMS teacher at Hanuabada. Groves voiced his ideas about blending cultures and expressed his conviction that the Administration and the Missions needed to work together to educate the native people. These remained basic principles of his education policies as demonstrated by his future actions (Duncan 1974; McNamara 1974).

CONCLUSION

The data in this chapter are about the early outside settlers, whose presence and actions brought the beginnings of formal western schooling and Christian values to all contacts. This was as different from the traditional practical and spiritual instruction, integral to the child's own clan, prior to and during this era. The education data span the years 1873 to mid-1946 which is a mere seventy three years in the history of the inhabitants of an ancient island. Although this presentation too is brief, it is enough to reveal a glimpse of the major extraordinary human energy and commitment of outsiders to whatever was their part in attempts at change during the period. Nevertheless, the following are selected overarching themes identified in the data from which examples are also selected and expanded, which continuously challenged all commitments.

Diversity of Cultures: The diversity of cultures is hard to comprehend. Hundreds of indigenous languages were only one sign of the differences between the native people themselves. People from the United Kingdom, Europe, the United States of America, the Pacific, Australia and New Zealand worked in commerce, government or missions. Others from Asia included Chinese in small business and later Japanese in warfare. The amalgamate transmitted to the host people by demonstration or by formal teaching was diverse or at times perverse. Consequently, there were different perspectives as participants tried to communicate with one another throughout phases of work and development. There was a diversity of roles, in what could be seen as a drama on a developing country stage, with the characters costumed accordingly. The native people lived simply in local environments vulnerable to newcomers; while the outsiders encroached on the coastal villages and hamlets for various reasons, not always bringing the same 'new way'.

Authoritarianism of Outsiders: There was 'power' associated with the foreign agencies. From a villager's perspective, outsiders dictated policy and finance from afar and the comparatively imposing statures and personalities in the leadership often appeared formidable. The natives grew up with the fear of sorcerers and respect for chiefs, 'big men' and warriors in their own cultures. Something of that disposition appeared to transfer to new ideas which were also implemented and supervised by outsiders with confidence and determination.

Antagonisms Between Participants: There were inherent suspicions within and between clans and regions. Paradoxically, the antagonism and competition between the different Christian denominations partly reflected their history in Europe many years before. Another source of tension was the balancing between agencies of government and of ambiguous relations between the missions and governments, each needing and respecting the other but rarely in accord. In the introduced systems, the initiative, the agenda and the leadership was, from the people's perspective, from the outside world.

Roots of Racism: Concurrently, anthropological researchers internationally contributed to the world view of New Guinea but old theories continued about the diminished learning potential and place in Western and Eastern society of indigenous peoples. Boas (1946) carried out observations and methodical interviews with natives in New Guinea. Malinowski in an extended stay on the Trobriand Islands in 1914, recorded the daily life of the people claiming that he saw in the culture of Trobrianders what they themselves were unable to articulate since it was integral to their own lifestyle (Malinowski 1961). His kinship charts and advice were used by Margaret Mead recording on Manus Island. Her child development and male and female relations research there drew world-wide attention (Mead 1975). These were some of the social anthropologists in the 1920s studying 'primitive cultures before they vanished' (Howard 1984). It is reasonable to assume that 'travellers' or their sponsors, prior to long journeys by sea, had read such reports to plan contact strategies and language learning skills. Attitudes to the intelligence of native people and the degree of racial prejudices influenced expectations.

Architects of the British Empire were also constructive investors in the thinking of this period. Colonial perspective of educational policy and practice in British tropical countries, which in 1954 numbered some 50 different dependencies and as many million people, identified three phases of comparable educational development, briefly i.e.,

initially missionary activity, then government involvement, followed by transition, overlap and collaboration (Lewis 1954). While British colonial literature did not include the Territories of Papua and New Guinea tropical experience was available.

Education as Patchwork: The difference between education and schooling was clear. What the anthropologists observed on the islands, the missionaries dissuaded in all terrains and the patrol officers confronted in the highlands were colourful communities educated into their clever survival systems. The visitors and settlers were outputs of their own cultural education. Reciprocal informal education was available to all ages and cultures in daily encounters. Schooling was what was presented to children in Papua or New Guinea in formal classrooms and boarding schools; it was there the cultures met and where more than a western overlay was attempted. Because of the variety of environments, of curricula, of teachers and of instructional material, the schooling results could be compared with a patchwork quilt. This was in the sense of for individuals but also geographically.

In summary, the data over the seven decades indicate for both or either territory there was no one syllabus in common required or used; no teacher preparation, standards or register in common and no instructional materials in common. The administration had the legal right to mandate educational policies, but did not impose schooling for native people. The missions were each powerful in their own parishes and remained separate. However, individual missionaries and government officers worked hard and were successful in small ways with individuals and groups which provided schooled 'patches'. These later linked with further changes. While 'diversity', 'authoritarianism', 'antagonism' and 'racism' are identified as negative elements which impinged on and added to the educational 'patchwork', they were not all bad. As schooling evolved, these elements also drew out coping qualities from participants, serving as irritants for improved communication and eventual planned national progress.

The next chapter, Chapter Three, is a Literature Review which selects aspects of teacher education policies, staff localisation, college programmes and classroom implementation.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The goal here is to review the literature relevant to this study. There are four Research Questions which are the sections of this chapter. The first three run in a parallel time-frame between 1940 and 1996 and are thus linked, consequently review material will apply at times to more than one question. The fourth Research Question assumes the findings of the others but relates more to the teachers' colleges between 1990/1991 and 1993/1994 and the congruence of the Diploma implementation with policy statements.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1

What policies evolved to facilitate the implementation of teacher education from 1946 to 1996?

Introduction

The sequence in this section is a broad post-World War II era view of the Territories of Papua and New Guinea and aspects of Australia's policies and education there. This is followed by a focus on teacher education. Specific actors in the unfolding teacher education policy shifts include partnerships, institutions, overseas influences and new global forces.

Post-World War II and Australia's Involvement in the Territories of Papua and New Guinea

The traumas of war (1942-1945) including forceful foreign intrusion, immense amounts of combat equipment and destruction of village gardens, were in time repaired with help from many of the re-employed Australian pre-war government and missionary personnel. Changes in attitudes to the work and the need for the development of the indigenous people in the Territories were thus begun slowly. Literature about the War from the experiences of overseas soldiers is extensive (e.g., Feldt 1946) and survivors are writing battalion histories. This period had a strong impact on local villagers (Robinson 1981; Nelson 1982). Another perspective raised is the degree to which 'outsiders' can disturb

ancient cultures (Nelson 1975). The first single administration to govern both the Australian Territory of Papua and the United Nations Trust Territory of New Guinea gave policy which, with further 'contact' by patrol officers, offered potential for a future unity and a combined schooling system (Sinclair 1984).

In 1946, the Minister of Immigration in Australia made it clear he wanted ten white British immigrants for every one from elsewhere (Chambers & Pettman 1986). The White Australia Policy excluded foreign non-whites from coming to Australia and therefore also to work or teach in the Territories of Papua and New Guinea (TPNG). This operated until the 1970s when racial discrimination was 'officially' removed (Palfreeman 1967; Yarwood 1968). The UPNG employed African, West Indian and Indian academics from the 1970s (UPNG 1975).

The Director of Education in the TPNG from mid-1946, Mr Bill Groves, unlike his counterpart Gunther in the Department of Health, did not improvise on a country-wide scale. The fact that Groves did not rush to open Administration schools for native children was consistent with his own theories and the early policy independence he enjoyed (Groves 1936; Cleland 1996). It was the Commonwealth Minister for Territories, Mr Paul Hasluck, who imposed his theories of development (Hasluck 1976:94), and while they also included consideration of cultures and Christianity in the guiding objectives, he emphasised a third, 'advancement of the people'. This was to enable them to 'manage their own political affairs', 'express their own personalities' and retain 'native life' (ibid). He did not see change as improving the people as much as awakening them to their own combined potential (see also Porter 1993). Mr Hasluck himself was criticised for his shortcomings in terms of 'impatience' for change (Dorney 1991:289), and for being yet another leader who was 'soft on the natives' while Minister for Territories (Lewis 1996; Hasluck 1998). This accusation of being 'soft' was intended as a slight, and meant in short, seeing the 'natives' as people, who would take their country into the modern world. For many Australians, this was different thinking but a Language policy was needed by teachers wanting clearer directions. Another who discredits Hasluck (as well as Hubert Murray for similar attributes), was Healy (1975). He claimed that the PNG people were kept in 'bondage' too long and one example used was the policy of attempting 'grass-roots cultural assimilation' by providing universal primary schooling before secondary and tertiary for fear of some clans moving more quickly into leadership (1975:237).

A perspective in March 1946 is presented by Kuder writing in a comprehensive survey of the first hundred years in the TPNG of the Lutheran Church (1886-1986). He noted that after the war there was a 'different world' that greeted returning missionaries and that contacts during the war had 'opened the eyes of the people' (Kuder in Wagner & Reiner, Editors 1986:223-248). His narrative of the same 20 years as those to which McKinnon and others wrote (Ryan 1972), while parallel eras indicated the educational philosophy, policies and theories of a mighty organisation staffed and funded by Lutheran sponsors, e.g., in USA, Germany and Australia. When Bishop Kuder and fellow contributors write of 'partnerships' it was not co-operation with the Australian Administration but world-wide alliances. This literature is a small indication of the depth and breadth of the Lutheran mission in New Guinea after 1946 up until 1970 when a combined Teaching Service was introduced (see Weeden 1969 for details). This is only one reference to missionary and church strength.

Examples of other literature which narrate parts of mission education history are White (1991) (Anglican), Prince & Prince (1981 and 1991) (Asian Pacific Christian Mission). Wedega (1981); Abel & Abel (1991) (Kwato), Cocks (1941); Chatterton (1980) (London Missionary Society), Danks (1901); Langmore (1974) (Methodist) and Meere (1968), Adela (1971); Aerts (1971); Smith (1985); SVD/SSpS (1996); SSpS (1999) (Roman Catholic) and Wood (1977) Christian Religion Syllabus in Appendix 3.1.

One of the writers of the extensive resume of PNG education in the *Encyclopaedia of Papua New Guinea* (Ryan 1972) was McKinnon, the fourth and last Australian Director of Education for the Territories. He gave a significant early educational policy insight. He posited that because there was no involved indigenous representation or consequent pressure, Australians, as trustees, made education policy very cautiously for more than 20 years after the appointment of the first Director in mid-1946. McKinnon's contribution suggested that this explained also why educational policy appeared 'liberal' and 'humanistic' (Ryan 1972:345). Dr McKinnon suggested that in his experience in the Territory however details of policy emerged from daily decisions made to 'resolve diverse currents of opinion at the local level' (ibid) and that was the practical application of any 'lofty philosophical' guides (ibid). On the other hand, McKinnon acknowledged the influence of the 1954-56 policy statement of the Minister for Territories, Mr Paul Hasluck (Ryan 1972; McKinnon 1968). This statement is given closer positive attention by Hasluck (1976) and Porter (1993). McKinnon highlighted several aspects of Hasluck's

policy: the all round development of the indigenous peoples of the Territory both men and women; through education, the blending of their cultures, voluntary Christianity and English as a common and unifying language (Ryan 1972). It is clear that he saw his predecessors and his own stewardship as willingly endeavouring to shape an education system and programmes including teacher education which adhered to this guide or used it as the fulcrum for decision making. He presented the dilemmas of 'blending cultures' posed for both overseas and indigenous teachers and concern for the implications for values of future generations as had Groves (1936) and Hasluck (1952).

What McKinnon called 'cautious', the first Director had seen as a need for 'time' to gradually blend cultures not impose foreign values (Groves 1936). Insights to the social climate in which Groves operated are the subjects of 24 Memoranda sent to districts (Groves 1954). Groves' critics claimed while he had little money and few staff in the 1946-1957 period, efficient planning proposals to Canberra would have assisted and that there was no official policy of 'gradualism' (Cleland 1996). Others acknowledged achievement of the early post-war years in retrospect. Groves' son was realistic about his father's efforts in those days (Groves 1960) and university staff explored the educational and social dilemmas of the 20 post-war years (Meek 1972; Howie-Willis 1980). The third Director in his ACE paper praised both Groves and Roscoe and recognised the village pioneering achievement (Johnson 1970).

The Attitudes of Australians as Developers in Papua New Guinea

One avenue of consideration less visited, but influential, was the attitudes of Australians to native peoples, in particular Australian women who were wives and not having contact formally with indigenous people other than as servants (Inglis 1974). They too influenced their children's attitudes. Some of the colonial-type white Australian pre-war society returned still seeing themselves in a superior role due to their perception that the natives were inferior to them (Roberts 1996) and attitudes changed slowly (Bourke et al 1993).

A comprehensive review of the literature on racial identity and its implications for education in USA, was provided by Carter and Goodwin (1994). The inferior status of blacks was common folklore, and was dated back to Biblical interpretations, until the late eighteenth century when scientific studies were conducted to support variations in intelligence and therefore status (Carter & Goodwin 1994:294). While studies about

inferiority may have been related to justifying slavery, stereotypes were ingrained in the world-view of race over a long time and 'whites' saw other races as struggling to be like them. Many African-American people in some States of America were denied the right to read, write and count while Native Americans were given Euro-centric education as a means of replacing indigenous culture (Wicks 1999). Several Territory Christian missions had strong USA sponsorship and personnel.

Writing in an anti-racism handbook for Australian adult educators, Chambers and Pettman (1986) claimed that British Imperialism, unresolved conflicts with Aborigines since 1888 and the immigration laws had deprived many Australians from getting to know people of other races (1986:23). Australian workers in the Territory were the products of the attitudes to other races in their home districts.

A Focus on Teacher Education

In 1968 a meeting of officers-in-charge of Territory teacher training centres was attended by Professor John Lewis from the Institute of Education, London. His confidential report to Canberra about the primary syllabus in Papua and New Guinea included a short reference to teacher preparation (Lewis 1968). His theories honed from his 'dependent nations' or colonial, experience informed his advice to the Australians (Lewis 1954). Those recommendations were pursued, and formed the basis of policies for the Papua New Guinean teacher education system. These included: funding meetings annually between the principals and head office, working closely with college lecturers designing teaching materials and especially helping the mission centres and colleges to retain standards. In the volume *'Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropic Areas'*, Lewis (1954) cites examples of teacher training across the British Empire which evolved following the advice of British committees. However, implementation differed, adapting to the local political, social, financial and cultural environment, of the particular 'dependent peoples'.

The 1968 teacher training conference encouraged college consolidation and was influential in many ways (APC 1968). The term 'training' was to be replaced by 'education' and around the same time reflective approaches to teaching and learning were encouraged in colleges (Penny 1969; Gibson 1969). The paradigm shift generated discussion and interpretations which lasted many years. One succinct defining statement for staff and

students was, 'A development of understanding is inherent in education, while unreflective responsive activity is generally associated with training' (Knight 1980). However, the missions were carrying out most of the teacher preparation independently until 1968 (Ryan 1972).

Church and State Partnership in the Development of a Teacher Education System

The Weeden Committee, similar to the British colonial model, conferred for more than a year and included as members Dr C Beeby (New Zealand) and Dr Gabriel Gris (Papua New Guinea). The recommendations of the Weeden report (1969) had a major impact on teacher education as it set up a Teacher Education Committee reporting to the National Education Board (NEB) which was the beginning of independent institution building.

A Commission for Higher Education (CHE) memo in 1993 referred to State-Church Partnership, this was a rare term in PNG literature. There was a 'partnership' between Missions, by then referred to as Church, and their Teacher Education Division head office. In 1990, the new National Higher Education Plan was accepted and this began changes to the CHE and its role in the coordination of the large higher education sector commencing with teacher education and nurse education which impinged on other partnerships. Earlier CHE had not been involved with quality, accreditation, curriculum or leadership. A CHE State-Church Partnership Review Committee operated in 1995. Its first meeting (1993) had finances on the agenda.

Although there were very basic concerns in common the principals of both church and government colleges also had heavy campus welfare responsibilities, minimal operations support staff and their agency requirements with which to contend (Farrell 1985; Lucas 1996). Church members debated the underlying theories of the official PNG Philosophy of education, a document compiled in 1986 by a committee whose chairman was Sir Paulias Matane. The document was branded 'humanism' and others said that it was the influence of the Julius Nyrere literature (1967a, b, c) or Paulo Freire (1974), the latter having visited the University of Papua New Guinea. The philosophy was analysed with student teachers. Integral human development (IHD) was translated as integral (physical, social, spiritual and intellectual development of a person), human (social relationships are basic) and development (individuals have potential to grow). Liberation and equality, through social and communal activities were concepts discussed by students.

Post-PNG Independence, the first national Curricular statement was gazetted (DOE 1977). Minister Kale's policy document for teacher education mostly reflected what was already being done, but previously without a 'mandate' (Morris 1998) so was accepted by the Churches in partnership. It included distribution of working hours and student and staff qualifications as well as a brief syllabus and was a major step in policy evolution.

The Institute of Education: A Model Used in British Colonies and Adapted for PNG

PNG Colleges debated the value and structure of an Institute of Teacher Education (Rogers 1979b; Liriope 1993). Originally, an Institute of Education was a post-war British innovation and successfully introduced into Africa in various forms (Fafunwa 1967; Hanson 1967, 1968; Hawes 1979). There was a need expressed in PNG by academics and administrators since the 1950s with references to successful Institute models elsewhere in developing countries (APC Reports). By the 1990s documents had been scrutinised by committees in Papua New Guinea and the role of such an Institute for Teacher Education was better understood. It was recommended to the Minister after a lengthy process (McNamara 1989). In 1994, the Chairperson of ATE, ATE having been seen as the forerunner to an Institute of Teacher Education, spoke of an unanticipated move by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in opposing a long planned National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) (Avalos 1994).

The background was that the Churches were apprehensive about any competitive power base be it UPNG, the Government or a strong Institute (APC 1974). The TED of the National Department of Education (NDOE) with the Secretary's 'standards' and the Minister's 'curriculum' in focus, had questioned the capacity of sustaining future representative attendance at so many individual college meetings in the provinces and strongly favoured a NITE. The McNamara Report (1989:14-24) however provided a costly ideal structure for a NITE without any alternative model. A collation of papers about a National Institute of Education in Papua New Guinea (Liriope 1993) revealed how different each had been conceptualised, however there was agreement on the area of support for college staff and curriculum. UPNG papers were written in favour of adapting the British Institute model, e.g., Trevaskis (1973), Stannard (1974). Its potential for coordination and continuity of developmental ideas was attractive. One of the reasons that the NITE was rejected by the Minister, on the advice to him by the CHE or local and foreign consultants who were in the country at the time of the rejection, was that it was

too costly (Avalos 1994). Another expressed reason was that the Minister wanted 'co-operation' at this strategic stage of the developing Reform changes to the NES. If NITE had been implemented soon after 1989 there was extensive professional data and interest for it to have greatly strengthened PNG teacher education. Instead, accepted was yet another coordinating committee, which was the alternative pursued by the CHE (Avalos 1994) and called the Council for Teacher Education.

The Commission for Higher Education and Its Changing Roles in the 1990s

The increased involvement of the Commissioner for Higher Education (CHE) in professional issues in primary (community school) teacher education was evident in the report of the Annual Principals' Conference (APC 1996), although a personal letter two years later from a national principal stated that he understood that the Ministry National Teacher Board of Studies was being revived for co-ordination and as a 'centrepoint' (Waka 1998). The *Education Sector Review* (1991) and CHE literature in the 1990s gave insight on how this had eventuated as follows.

The *Education Sector Review* (1991) indicated that as the Parliamentary National Executive Council had the previous year accepted a new National Higher Education Plan (1990), actioned were only three areas in which the Department of Education and Higher Education 'overlaps', namely, 'Technical and Vocational Teacher Education, Primary and Secondary Teacher Education, and the University of Papua New Guinea's extension studies programme, as an opportunity to grade ten leavers to matriculate' (1991:25). This was consistent with the CHE's ongoing role in primary teacher education: the award of all tertiary scholarships, operational support for tertiary students and decisions about programme placement. The *Education Sector Review* recommendations included endorsing the McNamara Report (1989) recommendations, identified as a three-year teacher education programme, a 'professional institute': the National Institute of Teacher Education and 'upgrading college staff to allow a tertiary style of teaching' (1991:27).

The Higher Education Act 1983 required an accreditation scheme, this had not occurred and individual accreditation cases were handled as the issues arose (e.g., setting up each of the Catholic and SDA private universities) until the National Accreditation Policy for Higher Education (1993). The Office of Higher Education (OHE) was seen as the forerunner to CHE, although both terms were used freely in the literature. The *Regional*

Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diploma, and Degree in Asia and the Pacific was signed by the Chairperson of the CHE on behalf of the Government of PNG in the 1980s, but it was never ratified. This Convention had been designed to strengthen reciprocal recognition awards such as the new Diploma in Teaching (Primary) but by then was not valid in PNG. The draft CHE document defined three Diplomas: undergraduate for professional training, undergraduate not related to professional work both of which required Grade 12 entrance or equivalent matriculation and a postgraduate Diploma.

The third clue in the review of CHE literature was Papua New Guinea Higher Education Statistics (OHE 1995). Statistics for all 'Institutions of Higher Education' included Fisheries, Maritime, Agriculture, Nursing and all the universities. It indicated that for the year 1995, there was a total of 1 714 students in teachers' colleges with only 40 more men than women. Of these about 60 percent were aged between 20 and 24 years, and 25 percent between 15 and 19 years (1995:12). According to the documents CHE had, extensive operational responsibility and interest in a NITE remained inconsistent with their legal and established roles.

British Influences on Teacher Education Developments in PNG

Many teacher education policies that evolved in PNG from 1946 to 1996 were based on British heritage. Australians were the most strongly represented foreigners working in various capacities in PNG. Australian educators whose own system was influenced by the British, brought their theories to PNG. There were also people on major advisory committees who had British colonial experience, i.e., Beeby, Currie, Weeden. One of the consultants in 1994 (and 1996) was Dr J Turner, The University of Manchester. His 1960s publication about Christian education in Nigeria (see his response Appendix 5.12 (b)) had been distributed by the PNG head office (27/9/78) for college staff readings.

British laws influenced the history of the indigenous peoples in colonies similarly (Wicks 1999). This resulted in a process of repression of 'third nation' peoples. On the other hand, British policies designed for co-ordinating educational development in tropical dependencies, demonstrated concern and ongoing dedication to formal education for 'dependent people'. There, systems of advisory bodies comprising high profile British patrons, long term conduct of external examinations and of study scholarships to Britain (Lewis 1954) and later the support of universities in new nation states, were colonial

networks that continued into the latter part of the twentieth century. They contributed to an 'international man', through English language and British standards.

New Global Forces on PNG Teacher Education Policies in the 1990s

The negative attitudes to the authority of outside donors gradually became a significant issue within PNG in the 1990s (Taylor et al 1997:61-64; Dorney 1998:337-343). In November 1993 a forum was held in Brisbane to explain the changes in Australian aid to PNG, i.e., from 'cash support' to 'program aid' (Dorney (1998). There had been warnings two years earlier from the Australian government to the PNG government about a tighter control on how aid money was to be spent. A consequence was 'tied' aid and sectoral working groups including Australian representations set up in PNG for different government departments to present detailed information to Australia on PNG infrastructure, e.g., the influential *Education Sector Review Report* 1991, which recommended reform of the PNG education system. Representations of non-government organisations (NGOs), churches, Australian universities and consulting groups numbered more than 400 people at the Brisbane forum which was also attended by Sir Julius Chan, the PNG Prime Minister. He is reported in Dorney (1998:341) as having reservations and resentment about the new strategies and their potential for 'frittering' funds on non-priority areas and Canberra again usurping PNG sovereign rights. Mr Brown Bai, Secretary of the PNG Prime Minister's Department, at the forum too, expressed ignorance and surprise at the amount of planning, for PNG, Australians had completed (ibid).

A university paper (Boulton-Lewis 1999) highlighted the competition for consultancies, projects and research funds and writing a successful bid, often to Canberra. The literature revealed that the impact on the receiver country's own education plans may be omitted, from the bid planning, in the pressure for university financial and academic survival.

In discussing the degree to which policy in education can be borrowed or compared or can be seen as global Taylor et al (1997:61-66) refer to a policy making case study by an indigenous PNG academic, formerly a teachers' college lecturer, Mr G Kulwaum (1995). It cites the PNG 'cultural and linguistic diversity' which existed yet a 'Western bureaucratic culture' prevailed among the indigenous PNG policy-makers when planning for such services as education and health. They were controlled by foreign aid and loan donors rather than being able to meet their own interpretations of priorities which is

alienating for individuals, exploitative of independent national cultures and seen as another form of colonisation (Taylor et al 1997:62).

At a Politics, Policy and Practice conference in Brisbane Australia, Dr Beatrice Avalos, Chairperson of the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) in PNG was a key speaker. She made various references to her university experience in PNG two of which related to the issue of new global forces and teacher education policy in PNG (Avalos 1994:46-50) both aspects of this thesis. They were the issue of the interference by outsiders in the local process of decision making, in this case, of the creation of a National Institute of Teacher Education in particular. Insofar as her presentation related to initial teacher education for PNG, it could also serve as a case study of 'interpretations' and how difficult it is to triangulate an accurate account for historical records. One example is the paper refers to an AIDAB/QUT lecturers' project as being for 'empowerment of teacher educators' (1996:48). A QUT staff member identified this same project as 'for institution building' (Lucas 1996:232). While the NDOE paid extensive in-country costs for the same project to enable college staff and curriculum development (NEB/ATE 1990:16). On the other hand, the lecturers wanted an opportunity to attend a workshop, see colleagues in the same subject area and plan curriculum content of the new Diploma they were implementing: ongoing collaborative efforts for them.

The World Bank has included PNG in its development country services since the late 1960s when it extended the buildings of the primary level Goroka Teachers' College to become the secondary teachers' college. In the 1970s the World Bank included provincial school curriculum resources and in the 1980s teachers' college staff study opportunities. It functioned in a Project Cycle, like Australian aid, requiring extensive detail and a series of preparation activities. This was consistent with World Bank (1990) literature regarding the sequence of long-term planning. Up until the 1990s there had been success in the teacher education interactions and quality of staffing (Ross 1987; O'Toole 1988) the final activity in the most recently completed World Bank cycle being 1992.

In summary, the evolving teacher education policies highlighted by a literature review were the 1946 creation of a Department of Education for both Papua and New Guinea and both overseas and indigenous children but with on-going racist attitudes; the long-term influence of the positive 1950s policies of the Minister for Territories, Mr Paul Hasluck; the late-1960s consolidation of church and government teachers' colleges and the 'team'

philosophy or partnership of the principals with the Teacher Education Division; the Weeden Report document resulting in the combined Teaching Service and the National Education Board of the 1970s; the standards (of English) debate, or college entrance levels, leading to teacher education research in the 1980s and the *ad hoc* NEB creation of the Association of Teacher Education. Professional and academic aspects were then led by the Professor of Education between 1990 and 1994 towards a NITE until confounded by CHE and ultimately overtaken by foreign aid and loans policies of the late 1990s.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2

What polices supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these relate to the work of the teacher education system?

Introduction

The first section spanned selected policies that influenced teacher education over 50 years. There was a review of important literature from the beginning of the Department of Education in 1946 through the next four decades to the policy shifts of the Commission of Higher Education by 1996. Between those two dates overarching policy issues included consideration of cultures, pace of change, attitudes to the natives by people from overseas teaching and working in Papua and New Guinea, the Missions which became powerful Church agencies and the British influence on teacher education in PNG concluding with reference to new foreign aid policies. This section follows the same time span but picks up one thread of the staffing in teachers' colleges. Expatriates in many different categories of Administration or Government employment, missionaries or those with Non-Government Organisations, worked as teacher educators. They were not disregarded, but Research Question 2 literature review follows the thread of *indigenous* college lecturers.

Definition of Localisation

Broadly speaking, the two key post-World War II policies were preparation for the country's Independence, that was gained in 1975 and secondly, its corollary, staff Localisation. This latter term was defined and the thinking behind the process expanded in a rare explanatory document from the Department of Education head office to teachers' college Governing Councils, '(Localisation) means transferring power from 'expatriates' to local men and women ... putting local people into jobs (to) work and make the

decisions about their own country' (DOE 1973b). The correspondence went on to explain that '... (Government) is not just waiting for localisation to ... happen by itself. Both the Australian and PNG governments have given orders that localisation is definite policy and must be carried out' (1973b:3). An attachment indicated a six year plan (1973-1979) with 'fast' and 'slow' pace categories of jobs: the former included top executives, primary school public servants and teachers and vocational centre teachers, and in the 'slow' category, teachers' college staff in the three Administration colleges (94 professional staff) and high school public servants and teachers, in all, totalling more than 1 200 Australians. While the Department of Education was the biggest employer, each Government Department had similar operational planning to do as did private enterprise. However, each manpower development plan was dependent on schooling, which in turn demanded an efficient *indigenous* teaching force and therefore teachers' college staff.

The University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) opened in 1967 with overseas staffing. Meek (1982:207-214) identifies as the 'second stage of consolidation' the 'localization' or 'indigenization' of the Vice-Chancellor and other staff during the 1970s. Meek expands his study of the young university under such institutional issues as social order, policy formation, decision-making procedures and internal politics (1982:25) and reveals turmoil in a multi-faceted micro-society of the period. In 1975, of a total of 556 staff, PNG staff were 2% of the teaching staff, 81% of the administrative services staff and 98% of the maintenance staff.

The annual Waigani Seminars organised by UPNG were a measure of academic ideas related especially to Papua New Guinea ideas. The regular reports of up to 500 pages represent a valuable literature resource. In the Eighth Waigani Seminar Report (Brammell & May Editors 1974) relevant papers to the localisation challenges of the decade were 'Section X: Manpower and Planning'. Ten papers raise questions about such relevant issues as the use of models, professionalism, business and industrial training and development, selection of public servants and methodology of localisation. The weekly newspaper *Times of Papua New Guinea* and *The Papua New Guinea Journal of Education* also regularly featured local research reports or discussion.

Comparisons can be made with the British Colonial days in Africa. Fafunwa (1971) writes of 'Nigerianization' and Lewis (1954) wrote, 'In so far as the provision of workers from among the dependent peoples is concerned, Governments and missions are showing

signs of co-operating with considerable success (and) further training is being offered in England for experienced African (Gold Coast) teachers to fit them for work of increased responsibility (in tertiary teaching)' (1954:89). The main worry was to provide accommodation for these teachers with English families which was to be part of the educational experience and it was anticipated that the missions (churches) would take the lead in providing such accommodation in the UK. Preparation of the whole person to be a teacher and the importance of the family, were cultural aspects of the 'dependent peoples' (the term used by Lewis 1954) whether in African countries, South East Asia or the West Indies. These two cultural aspects were shared also with the British.

A modern example of a comparable, although different, undertaking is the 'Indonesianisation' of workers by foreign companies. In 1993, the regulations on expatriate employment in Indonesia were supervised by the Department of Manpower Planning (Economic and Business, *Review Indonesia* No 82, November 1993). This was mainly related to foreigners in the Oil and Gas Industry who were required to train local staff (Indonesianisation) as part of their contract for exploration with the Indonesian Government. A case study method was used by Rohani (1992) to study the implementation of this training. Dowling et al (1999:156), saw that pre-departure cross-cultural formal preparation is important for expatriates to be successful in their enterprise overseas. Such expatriates could also be asked to teach their job to local staff.

'Aboriginalisation' is a term used in the Northern Territory of Australia. It describes a process of filling classroom teaching and promotional positions in Aboriginal schools with qualified Aboriginal teachers replacing non-aboriginal persons (Ngurruwutthun & Stewart 1996:21). A training programme detailed for a principal of a Community Education Centre took two years, e.g., Principal-Mentor and Principal-in-Training, 1994 and Principal (appointed) with a Support in 1995. This highlighted leadership changes.

Localisation in the PNG Teacher Education System

Localisation policies, specific to teacher education in PNG were intended in the long term to increase numbers and improve quality and this related to both college and head office level staff. It involved the consolidation of the colleges in order to get more students and staff resources and subject specialisation not possible in the small training centres, and this was already well under way by 1970. Next was the preparation of indigenous

lecturers and college leadership. Dr McKinnon, the Director for Education, whose position was localised by Alkan Tololo, wrote in a strong localisation and executive training paper (McKinnon & Daloz 1971) to motivate country-wide action, that it was like a 'war-time emergency' and all Government Departments should be immediately searching to find local people to prepare for positions. Soon after, the Public Service Board set up a Localisation Branch and required each government department to appoint a Localisation Committee to monitor plans and their implementation. Beside the 94 staff at Port Moresby, Madang and Goroka (prior to joining UPNG) Government teachers' colleges, there were expatriate head office personnel and expatriate missionary or NGO lecturers at the seven Church colleges. The latter were employed on local salary and conditions by the PNG government. If one of the purposes of localisation was cost cutting, the latter group were less urgent to replace (DOE 1973). Within the teachers' colleges, the earlier small number of generalist staff had been replaced by many more specialist staff in academic, professional and practical lecturing positions in the consolidated larger colleges. This was the educational milieu to which the indigenous lecturers began to be attached for structured preparation years or appointment from 1975.

McNamara (1974) also gave a positive constructive representation of the educational administrators selection and development system. Personalised programmes for each teacher educator and administrator were prepared and monitored in the Staff Development Unit which had valuable references.

The First Assistant Secretary for Education, Mr Paul Songo summarised (in the *PNG Education Gazette* November, 1977) executive development and localisation activities indicating there were increased 'training opportunities for national teachers' and 'efforts to promote national officers to higher positions as rapidly as possible' (Songo 1977:279). He indicated critics cited poor qualifications, inexperience and poor selection. He accepted that selection could be improved, but questioned whether qualifications gained outside Papua New Guinea (by expatriates) were necessary for teaching community school children in PNG and that long experience was not always a valid criterion for expertise. The *Education Gazette*, a quality booklet which was the official medium for the Department's communication on educational issues and was distributed monthly to all school teachers remained a reference which indicated the localisation process through its topics, professional announcements and policy changes.

The Staff Development Unit (SDU) of the NDOE produced an annual quantitative report. The indigenous lecturers, referred to as 'national' lecturers, whose preparation for employment on a teachers' college staff had, as at 1994, been increasing for 25 years, were well supported both in-country and overseas financially and professionally. The success, in terms of organisation throughout this formal phase (1972-1994) was due to smooth co-operation of all parties co-ordinated overall by the SDU (O'Toole 1988). The positions and details of scholars involved in hundreds of different localisation activities were in the National Department of Education, where SDU committees monitored selection, progress and feedback carefully. Separate Divisions supervised their own. In the case of lecturers those involved were college staff, principals and especially the associate tutors in all the teachers colleges; coordinators at NDOE, UPNG, CCAE and QUT; sponsors, Australian aid, UNESCO and World Bank lenders and to a minor extent in the latter two years of this study (1994 to 1996) the Asian Development Bank (with CHE). A high priority was put on 'relevance' of the professional opportunity offered from overseas and measures taken to obtain details directly from organisers of study or conferences. There was no one way only that a college lecturer was prepared and development was on-going.

On the other hand, assumptions about the limitations of what was called the 'apprenticeship' model of the UPNG Diploma and then Bachelors degree in tertiary teaching were made in McLaughlin (1990). He quoted that what the National Department was sponsoring was national lecturers '... with subject speciality knowledge, a variety of tertiary level methods and a good industrious attitude' (NDOE 1978). McLaughlin queried the extent to which associate lecturers were being challenged to think deeply. The Staff Development Unit selected college supervisors/tutors from what was offering in the colleges in terms of accommodation and supervision, i.e., a cross section of staff in all nine colleges from many countries around the world. McLaughlin saw that the preparation for a lecturer's programme should be 'independent of college based supervisors for its empowerment' (1990:4). While a too formal apprenticeship model could be discrediting, the label was not appropriate for the variety of actual adaptations implemented by individuals. McLaughlin himself, as the UPNG tutor-co-ordinator, favoured even more reflectivity in his college work. The previous UPNG co-ordinator taught 'tertiary methods' at UPNG and encouraged field tutors with on-the-job initiative.

The history of nursing in PNG (1874-1975) presented exquisite detail of the process of

indigenous nurse preparation (Kettle 1979). The study was presented as though the objective was always to prepare the country for nationhood and its indigenous nurses and nurse educators for independence. The Health Department achieved this by 1975. Many missionary and government officers also rejoiced in their indigenous counterparts' development and successes in teachers' college work. For this kind of expatriate, there was no concern about the acceleration of localisation preparation in the 1970s and into the 1980s but the long-term work was overlooked in the teacher education literature. The minimal public records were related to the sudden political localisation policy.

Post-1990 and the National Lecturers Who Were the Product of Localisation

National lecturers were close to 70 percent of total staffing by 1991. O'Donoghue & Austin (1995) who taught in PNG up to 1990 and themselves had been tutors of associates in colleges, asserted in their article that PNG lecturers were lacking in reflective capacities and consequently overlooking opportunities to assist their student-teachers reflect. The authors of the journal article followed pre-designed categories and had interviewed college lecturers studying in Australia.

Another journal article at the close of an Australian aid programme in 1995 quoted a 1989 Australian aid report that stated (national) lecturers had not 'significantly influenced' PNG colleges (Lucas 1996). In comments about sustainability of professional development Lucas quoted Russell (1992) who had persuaded him that 'in-country valuing and commitment to (i.e., ownership of) the project, provision of *local* (my emphasis) funding during and after the active phase ...' were important (1996:239). Lucas's article claimed that the Australian aid/QUT professional development projects were planned (by them) to assist (PNG) institutional strengthening. This article is seen as misleading also, from a local PNG perspective, with misinterpretation of the terms 'basic skills', 'centrally determined National Objectives' and an 'extensive list of behavioural objectives' (ibid). Lucas selected five current strengths he saw in the PNG lecturers whom he taught at QUT, namely, held degrees, a high level of experience in development of curriculum and content areas, a growing sense of professionalism, an increased capacity to conduct and use research, and skills in networking both locally and internationally. Seven PNG in-country obstacles to sustaining professional development were identified.

At the same time heavy responsibilities continued to be held in co-educational residential

colleges but by national lecturers in the 1990s. There was a cadre of older national senior staff who had worked at several colleges, and levels, had adult children of their own and who were the new experienced staff and carried on the traditions of the institutions including church affiliations.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3

What historically constituted preservice programmes for preparing teachers, including the new three-year programme, Diploma in Teaching (Primary)?

Introduction

The second section of this Literature Review, addressing Research Question 2, was focused on literature related to the indigenous college professional staff and commenced by defining localisation, then dealt with the process of localisation in teachers' colleges and concluded with outsider views of national lecturers between 1990 and 1996. Research Questions 2 and 3 are similar in that they are unravelling a significant thread from a fifty year period of development. Research Question 3 was focused on the programmes in PNG pre-service primary teachers colleges. After a definition of a college programme in PNG, the literature reviewed signals the parts of the section: programmes for preparing PNG primary teachers, comparative and special elements and the new Diploma.

Definition of a Programme in the PNG Teachers' College Context

A programme is set in a single-purpose-college social climate which in most colleges has a religious foundation. The staff recently established spiritual, social, physical and mental dimensions to a programme as being according to the national philosophy of education (Matane 1986), but in fact these trends had always been policy integral to all aspects of the rural residential programmes before and since 1946.

The social climate in which college staff and students lived and worked was tenuous (APC Reports between 1968 and 1996). Natural disasters, e.g., volcanic eruptions (35 active volcanoes), violence of the weather interrupting flying and sea craft carrying students and staff; warfare between clans and 'payback' murders, tribal land claims and destruction of property around schools and colleges. During the 1980s it was recorded principals of colleges were physically attacked in three different localities. Increasingly

incidents involved armed police and armed criminal gangs. At the same time personal traditional fear and superstition remained. Both staff and students in PNG colleges coped first-hand with 'awful' events (Britzman & Dippo 2000). This context not only impinged on placement, supervision and timing of practice teaching but on the volatile nature of institutions and extra strain on staff and students. Literature for these topics can be located in Social Climate Reports (NDOE 1987, 1988) and Annual Principals Conference (APC) Reports. These documents existed for each of the years from 1968 to 1996, except for 1971, 1975, 1993, 1994 and 1995. Also Community Teachers' College Student Association (CTCSA) Resolutions in the same sources from 1970 to 1991.

Preservice Programmes for Preparing PNG Primary Teachers

The first published college programme syllabus (DOE 1962) was for a one year course for Grade 6 (primary) entrants to qualify to teach Preparatory, Standards I and II. Programmes were in some 23 remote venues (in 1960) with two or three staff members who before this document was published were self-reliant. The guide later was more the impressive Primary School Syllabus (revised DOE 1967). In its Introduction it explained 'a committee of administration and mission teachers' (1967:1) had devised this new syllabus in successive meetings and drafts commencing in 1960 and that comments were received from teachers in Papua and New Guinea and overseas. Many of the Syllabus Committee were the staff of rural teachers colleges. The bound document gave details of the content of each subject, i.e., English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Health, Natural Science, Music and Singing, Physical Education and Art and Craft for Preparatory and Standards I to VI. These became the 'subjects' of the college programme. This touchstone document with a detailed rationale provided 'an education adapted to the needs of Papua and New Guinea people' as changes cause 'anomie' if not 'rooted in a stable set of values' (ibid). The college staff used this book as a guide for the college programme and student-teachers studied it. Some thought this strategy limiting and Penny made a case for a more broadening approach and 'enlarging of minds' away from 'patrol box programming' and 'tramlining' teachers to primary level (1969:58).

The post-Independence school syllabus was the Community School Syllabus (Aarons 1977) and was also published in a series of drafts and sought to ensure the primary school was even more community orientated, an Independence philosophy also pursued by college programmes. References for this era were five year plans which presented broader

nation building perspectives (National Government 1972; DOE 1973a, 1974, 1975, 1976; Rogers 1979a). The first compendium published on PNG Education for lecturer reference was Barrington-Thomas (Editor 1976). The simple and traditional looked back upon from a modern perspective with nostalgia is different from involvement in the actual level of change. This is hard work with frustrating complex demands.

Teacher Education Division working with college principals through the Annual Principals Conference (APC) and with lecturers and senior lecturers and locally available expertise in curriculum workshops produced, on request from principals, guidelines for college programme content. Examples of these National Objectives booklets for Teacher Education are relevant literature (NDOE 1976, 1986). These were some of dozens of 'duplicated' guides and programme support materials prepared *with* college staff in the 1976-1989 period. Pivotal was the first Ministerial Policy Statement for teacher education (DOE 1977a) which was not a 'draft', but a stable directive.

The school academic standards became a subject of debate which impinged on all levels of the education system including the teachers' colleges. Reports of inquiries into standards were published by the DOE including: about entrants to colleges (1977b), the inspections system (1978) and provincial high schools (1980).

Teachers' College National Examinations after one semester of remedial studies in basic Grade Six level English and Mathematics (APC 1979) generated annually, multiple programme handbooks for college staff and student-teachers. The Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) brought anticipation of reviewing college programmes (Yeoman 1986, 1987, 1988; Ross 1988, 1989; Avalos 1989; McNamara 1989).

Comparative and International Teacher Education Programmes

A constellation of discernible teacher education aspects in the United States of America under the four rubrics 'teacher', 'student', 'curriculum' and 'milieu' brought a welcome sharing of their research (Lanier & Little 1986:527-569). Regarding a programme, the conclusion was that the curricula needed to be more '... deep, scholarly, coherent ... and continuing ...' (1988:556).

Perhaps motivated by the closing of a century, retrospectives of teacher education

programmes internationally have included literature from USA: Gage (1989), Gitlin and Margonis (1995), Zeichner (1998), Finkelstein and Efthimiou (2000), Putman and Borko (2000). They profess policies clearly, including concerns mostly in their own country. In the USA, certification differs state to state, programmes are located within university complexes, the majority of teachers are women, commercial school text materials abound and although the status of a teacher is said to be low, teachers are articulate about what and why they teach. Few of these elements are consistent with PNG in the 1990s.

From the United Kingdom, Gewirtz & Ozga (1990), Hoyle and John (1995, 1998) and Nisbett (2000) trace changes the political influence had over their teacher preparation in England and Scotland. Terminology and concepts intelligible to Australians and Papua New Guineans are evident but it is obvious there is a relevance, time and culture gap. Their single-purpose colleges were still functioning into the 1970s and PNG programmes in the early 1990s bore more resemblance to UK than to USA, while PNG colleges in the mid-1990s were reminiscent of Australian colleges in the early 1970s (Fist 1993).

Morris and Williamson (1998 & 2000) identified Australian and Hong Kong as influenced by the more practical emphasis (of the theory-practice balancing) in the British model which would also include PNG. However, PNG compared more easily with the criteria of developing countries (Dove 1986) and the literature was more appropriate in the area of policy and programmes (Hanson 1968 Nigeria; Hawes 1979 English-speaking Africa; Gardner (Editor) 1979 West and East Africa; Dove 1986 former colonies - 'dependent peoples'; Beeby 1968 'developing countries' including the Pacific; Beeby 1979 Indonesia). Observations or study of even the more relevant societies at a current or previous stage do not necessarily indicate policy or practice transfers across cultural boundaries, but, if observed or studied, it may assist see one's own situation better (Crossley 1992).

PNG Programme Unique Elements: Language and Relevance

Language: While there were debates at different stages of the NDOE development about options, the language policy in Hasluck's original 1954 objectives (Figure 5.1) remained and English was finally adopted as the national language of PNG at Independence in 1975. English Language, or Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) was required as a college subject or course (Meere 1966; DOE 1977a; NDOE 1986). The

Curriculum Unit of the NDOE employed experts from the world and nationals in latter days to publish quality, relevant English school materials. The extent to which samples now exist is unknown. Others involved in school and college material writing were Johnson (1960) and Walker and Gibson (1982). Innovative teaching methods were sought (Paulston and Bruder 1976), and UPNG had its own linguistic challenges (Brash 1975; Johnson 1986). A three-month expert consultancy was arranged by the NDOE to advise on the English component of basic skills examinations (Wingfield 1987). The total college English examination structure was researched (Yeoman 1988). With more than 800 indigenous languages, students did not easily 'hear' English. Papua New Guineans published autobiographies, philosophy, drama and poetry and many public personnel encouraged college students and teachers to strive for the highest standards and promoted English (Kiki 1968; Eri 1970; Matane 1972; Somare 1975; Narokobi 1980, 1983; Waiko 1987; Tawali 1987).

Relevance: The key Melanesian values of life are community, relationships and exchange and all are interrelated, and ethics are values in action (Mantovani 1987). The creative and independent publications of the indigenous authors revealed how complex their life or fantasising could be in cross-cultural dimensions. The Melanesian Institute, Goroka, an interdenominational Catholic academy energetically produced relevant social literature. Teacher education programmes before and since the first post-Independence Five Year Plan (1975-1980) encouraged creative arts. On the one hand to preserve the traditional and to display it on the other to adapt it for new participants or audiences. In the pre-Independence period expatriates thought they were assisting the indigenous to be proud of their culture but in retrospect it was more that the indigenous people were showing the newcomers that they were already proud of their culture.

Whose relevance? and for what purpose? are appropriate questions when trying to adapt and define relevance within a programme (Vulliamy et al 1990:49) but innovations, as well as regular reflection at the end of a semester, constantly demand this of a lecturer. Vulliamy debates determining the relevance of curriculum innovations, balancing between 'management' and 'socio-political' factors. He saw a change of teachers' practices rather than simply content change as needed and that 'wider cultural, economic and political context' are often overlooked (1990:189).

Relevance however, where a foreign language and a foreign culture was imposed on

student-teachers then on the indigenous teacher educators makes the transfer of theory, content and teaching style in programmes and, consequently, research, unique. There is a constant search for PNG relevance in college programmes, which requires planning.

How Long Should the Teacher Education Programme Be?

The length of teacher preparation programmes varies in South East Asian and Pacific countries (Morris & Williamson 1998 and 2000). Elsewhere in the world, they tend to be four or more years in English-speaking countries (USA and UK) and three in less developed countries with numerous combinations of on-and off-campus offerings by universities or colleges to fit the political, financial and cultural choices of the particular nation. The length of the programme as a predictor of teacher performance is discussed favourably by Avalos and Haddad (1979) in their comprehensive third-world abstracts sample.

Changes to the Community School Teacher Education Programme and System in 1990

The 1990 National Education Board changes required of the colleges in Papua New Guinea were in two dimensions, one was the length of the programme; from two years to three years (McNamara 1989; National Education Board 1990), the other was the programme content: changes based on the PNG education philosophy (Matane 1986) and on scope and depth of the content (Matane 1986; MacNamara 1989; NEB/ATE 1990). The change in length had been recommended by college principals at their Annual Principals conferences (see Table 7.1), and by student representatives (see Table 5.4). There was therefore no diffusion strategy necessary to convince colleges and their Church agencies nor any other stakeholder about the necessity for the added year, the recommendations for a third year had come full circle (Rogers 1979). The development of a programme configuration for the new Diploma, while an activity which had to be accepted in general terms by each college's AAC and Governing Council, was a challenge for the predominantly inexperienced college staff to quickly be creative and design a programme for ATE and to continue their normal full-time certificate work load. Planning was to be within each college, following the brief framework for development (NEB/ATE 1990:1-17), influenced by the geographic location, the agency's priorities, leadership and staff strengths. The implementation literature is studied in the next section.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4

Was the three-year Diploma programme, as implemented by staff of colleges between 1990/91 and 1993, congruent with policy objectives?

Introduction

The final section, Research Question 4, differs from the other three sections in that while historical, it reviews literature related to a specific implementation activity and related to that, the implementation's congruence with policy objectives. Literature will be provided on a number of the key issues related to the three-year Diploma.

Implementation Based on Rationale for Change: From the Certificate to the Three Year Diploma

The rationale for changes was embedded in the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) literature (Yeoman 1986; Ross 1987, 1988; Avalos 1989), and particularly the 'round-up' document, the McNamara Report (1989) which was written from evidence in the other sub-projects. The McNamara Report praised what colleges had been implementing for entrants' remedial work, theoretical and practical knowledge of the school syllabi and practicum. However, it reported a lack of ability of both beginning classroom teachers and student-teachers to adapt to the individual needs of children in widely different environments. Both Ross (1988) and Avalos (1989) had negatively highlighted this data. The McNamara Report quoted Beeby (1979) 'qualitative changes in classroom practice will only occur when teachers understand them (the changes), feel secure with them and accept them as their own'. McNamara placed the responsibility for teacher weaknesses identified by TERP back on college lecturers, at the same time, it was also the lecturers in transition from a Certificate to a Diploma in a similar situation.

The initiating and closure of curriculum policies and what was residual in different individual staff and in colleges, was hard to know and 'every policy had some kind of history' (Consodine 1994:8). The concept of 'education' rather than 'training' was consistent with a child-centred reflective trend in colleges since 1968. This was implemented with student-teachers in many ways, such as strong planning and preparation of lessons, orderliness, thinking about learning and different group work for different levels and needs of children, e.g., Farrant (1964, 1980) and Turney et al (1985). The consolidation of larger teachers' colleges with more and specialised staff and the

formation of the Teacher Education Division had supposedly added to sharing resources. However, the comprehensive TERP data indicated interaction of beginning teachers in their classrooms was too formalistic. Examples given were: detailed lesson plans, following timetable slots too closely and following teachers' guides, even referring to them when teaching while being observed (Ross 1988; Avalos 1989). This led Avalos to quote with approval Lanier & Little (1986), who claimed in an American and UK setting teachers were becoming 'group managers' rather than 'intellectual leaders' or someone who thinks about his or her practice. Avalos (1992a:317) wanted PNG teachers who were more secure in their knowledge base and more able to help children understand their world. She was keen to prepare generalist teachers who could also be specialists which had implications for the nature of the initial teacher preparation and for community school postings (Penias & Quartermaine 1981). Avalos interpreted the situation she found in both schools and colleges as needing to be less concerned with standards and more concerned with integral human development, and 'doing less but doing it better' (Matane 1986:39). The sub-project field experience informed Avalos' input, as a member of the committee, of the Education Sector Review (1991). That Sector Review report lead to the Reform of the PNG schooling system which was to be phased in between 1992 and 2000.

At a much earlier stage in the evolution of teacher education in PNG, a three year diploma was proposed and discussed layered around a 'student-teacher centred' criterion with emphasis on social development and students assisting one another. This integrated a third year in the field supervised by field supervisors associated with UPNG (Quartermaine 1968); in the mid-1980s when teacher supply, supposedly, outstripped demand, a flurry of sequence structures and rationale abounded with, especially, means of including more subject knowledge because its absence was seen by principals, e.g., Bidmead, Sanders, Stephenson, as the most common student weakness (APC 1986).

One departing lecturer just at the beginning of the Diploma implementation (1991), expressed concern about the lack of further 'reasoned and informed debate' (O'Donoghue 1991) prior to the new programme's commencement. He made what he called a "common sense" suggestion about society's requirements of a teacher, which in sum were knowledge, pedagogy, reflective practical action and understanding. Keen to get a 'balance' of all parts, O'Donoghue (1991) suggested programme structure included regular representation of Religion, English and Mathematics throughout the three years, regular weekly and small blocks of teaching opportunities and of the six 'remaining

School Subjects', two each year. He did not support addition of a Community Development strand. In this model, he may not have agreed with the sequencing given by ATE. He added one of the 40 minute periods per week for each of Library and Library Research, tutorials, student meetings and three periods weekly for private study. The Study of Teaching and Foundations of Education were together allocated six periods. He expanded on these two areas and suggested the addition of 'curricular issues in a social, cultural and historical context' (1991:16). This kind of timetabling was common.

O'Donoghue (1990) was also concerned about the teaching of pupils in community schools. The Physical Education syllabus was seen as inconsistent with the environment, confusing, and extremely general. He gauged the school syllabus to be suitable for teachers at the Stage of Meaning while his sample of school teachers, operating near four teachers' college, were seen to be at the Stage of Formalism (Beeby 1966). This claim was about village teachers in the comparatively established Rabaul area. He was relating to community schools, with groups of student-teachers, when teachers may be at their most organised, to accommodate the pressure of the visitors from the college.

Implementation by Colleges Underway in 1991

The proposed change framework (NEB/ATE 1990) reduced early practice teaching and increased academic content enabling more specialisation. Colleges were reluctant to implement either of these changes. Another aspect of change was the integration of subject departments into strands which it was anticipated would reduce overlap. Although there were 13 guiding principles in terms of syllabus the list omitted Assessment and Practice Teaching details. While the co-ordination of new programmes normally may be the work of the principal (Donahoe 1993:162), most colleges nominated another person to be the special full time co-ordinator for 1990 planning (see Table 8.9).

A brief informal visit to each college implementing the Diploma was arranged by the Commission for Higher Education early in first semester 1991. Some insights resulted (Avalos 1991c). The confidential four-page report stated that the National Department of Education (NDOE) besides adjusting (reducing) student intake figures made no other provision for the introduction of the three year programme in terms of budgetary grants for library, teaching materials and organisation, nor any increase in staff numbers (NDOE did provide finances at the higher student intake figure previously budgeted). However, it

reported that 'developed were a series of workshops destined to facilitate the process of course writing and provide opportunity for professional interchange among staff' (1991c:1). The report divided the colleges into three professional categories with some indication as to the reason and concluded that if the 'teacher training reform' (a concept not until then in local literature although part of a UNESCO request Appendix 7.10) was to be successful, as far as the colleges were concerned, four areas to be assisted were material resources, staff development, professional support and administrative flexibility (1991c:4). The degree of surprise or alarm may have been accounted for by the suggestion that planners and decision-makers are often unaware of the situations that potential implementers are facing (Fullan 1991:96).

General Congruency of Diploma Implementation with Policy Objectives

In summary, the key documents in common available for college staff use in the 1990/1991 period for planning and introducing implementation were as follows: The PNG education philosophy (Matane 1986), the four field research reports (Yeoman 1986; Ross 1987, 1988; Avalos 1989) and the final TERP document, the McNamara Report (1989). The latter was general and included operational and far reaching recommendations, e.g., the NITE and a time-line for its taking over the roles of the Staff Developing and Training Division (Teacher Education Division). Most specific to the college staff Diploma work was the culmination, the proposed framework (NEB/ATE 1990). However, this was a very sketchy document. Also recently completed by college staff with Staff Development and Training Division officers and specialists, and published in 14 booklets was the revised set of *National Objectives for Teachers' Colleges* (1986) based on the two-year Certificate programme needs.

Policy was for each college to begin the introduction of the Diploma in January, 1991. The colleges complied and 1991 saw the last of the two-year Certificate graduands and the first year of the three-year Diploma. For staff to take action congruent with knowledge, the implementation of the programme, key conditions suggested by Miles (1987) were clarity, relevance, action images, will to do, and skill.

Literature on the subsequent processing and implementation to match NEB/ATE 1990 intentions during 1990/1991, 1992 and 1993/1994 *within each college* were not accessed for this study. *The National Content Guidelines* (Ministry 1992 and 1993) was material

prepared quickly with college staff in joint workshops or impromptu meetings to assist with content decisions in their colleges. These were asked for by the NTEBS as a means of college support co-ordinated by the SD&TD, which was consistent with the ATE request. During 1994 the CHE consultancies which had been independently planned and co-ordinated began, and dozens of lengthy reports resulted (see Appendices 5.11 a, b, c). These did include curriculum recommendations, e.g., for whole revision and college staff to be more mobile (Turner 1994) and many did evaluate what staff were doing (as indicated in SD&TD 1996). There appeared to be no informed continuity in the, e.g., comprehensive Turner Report. There was no heed to '... sound theory will provide bases for choosing between strategic elements to be changed and stabilizing elements to be retained' (Hanson & Brembeck 1966:504). Access to what the CHE intentions were and the outcomes for college staff and students are material for another paper.

CONCLUSION

The literature selected for review here is relevant to consider teacher education developments in Papua New Guinea from 1946 to 1996 in terms of policy and practice. The breadth of the area invited a consistent basic structure, therefore the use of the four Research Questions was, and will be, continued as a means of delineating something belonging to teacher education according to government and allied records.

In this same time-span literature indicates teacher educators in the colleges and in head office contributed to, and their work was integrated with, that which came together formally in a General Services Wing in the 1980s: Curriculum Unit, Measurement Services, Inspections and Provincial Operations. The extensive in-country 'raw' curriculum literature on these aspects was omitted from this Literature Review. The emphasis is policy and practice in teacher education and as it led to the indigenous lecturers and administrators and their own classrooms and colleges in the 1990/1991 to 1993/94 period which is a worthwhile 'gap' to research.

The major themes and issues which arise about PNG teacher education in this context are its means of policy development, the church and government partnership, indigenous college staff growth, college programmes and their adaptations to fit the local cultures or needs and ways of co-ordination. The following chapter discusses the methods used to conduct the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with the chronological sequence of data collection and terminology to identify the different activities of the study and how the four Research Questions fit together and relate. The main body of the chapter explains the procedures of data collection and its processing for each Research Question leading to the reporting of the findings in subsequent chapters.

In late 1990, the Secretary for Education in PNG confirmed that all community school (primary) teachers' colleges would introduce a new pre-service Diploma programme in January 1991. The impending three years of implementation offered an opportunity for immediate collection of valuable multi-site college-based Papua New Guinean data on teacher education.

It was decided, in the first instance, that the Diploma research would adopt a two-phase approach. The first phase consisting of a number of visits to college staff in the field during 1991, producing data on which to base, in a tentative way, the next phase. The visits were to see how the college staff were handling their evolving classroom situation. Further formal contact about their teaching would be arranged later.

The 1991 visits with lecturers in their classrooms provided data about the initial year of the three year implementation (Project I Part (A)), as did a first-phase study meeting later in the year with the college principals and deputies (Project I Part (B)). These contacts led to the second-phase of the projects towards the end of 1993.

The second-phase included the collection of copies of three years of the staff inspection reports (1991, 1992 and 1993), and the construction and distribution of a reflective questionnaire to college teaching staff. Significant criteria, identified in the first-phase, guided the later analysis of inspection reports (Project II), the construction of the staff questionnaire and the response analysis (Project III).

After the collection of second-phase data, and beginnings of further analysis in 1994, the

direction of subsequent work became more clear. In order to find its meaning, within a longitudinal PNG teacher education context, the lengthened community school (primary) teachers' college programme and its implementation by the mainly indigenous staff, would be addressed with an historical teacher education policy-and-practice orientation. Four sequenced research questions were created as a means of processing the historical study and the more recent Diploma projects. Responses to the four Research Questions fulfilled a dual role; first they gave structure to the story of the evolution of teacher education in PNG up to 1996, second they helped to understand the implementation of the first three years of the Diploma in Teaching (Primary), 1991 to 1993.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES, SUBJECTS OR SAMPLES AND MATERIALS OR INSTRUMENTS FOR THE FOUR RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The four Research Questions are outlined in Chapter One. Given here for each of the questions are the *data collection procedures, subjects or samples* and *materials or instruments*.

Principles of histiography that underpin the construction of historical research proposed in the texts Fox (1969) and Borg and Gall (1979) were adhered to in the initial stages of responding to the four Research Questions and are seen to represent a traditionalist paradigm. Some influences integral to the methodology used in this thesis were the developing country environment and the UPNG staff and research publications of the 1970s and 1980s, many of which are referenced within the data. These methods included ethnography, oral history, autobiography (by expatriate and indigenous participants), case study, comparative education and observation and recording in classrooms demonstrated by Professor Avalos during the official Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) in the late 1980s. Quantitative data gathered from PNG provinces for scores of assignments by Professor Weeks and his students also illustrated adapted methods (Weeks 1990). By the latter stage of this thesis authors such as Kaestle (1997), Burns (2000) and Lincoln and Guba (2000) supported the retention of the research environment, that there was no single historical methodology and that truth seeking could be both a science and an art. Concerns remained to avoid confusion, vagueness and presentism, that policy was not necessarily practical nor was foresight, as seen in hindsight, always possible and that intent should not be inferred from consequences (Kaestle 1997:79-80).

The historical approach to the data collection procedures was similar for the first three

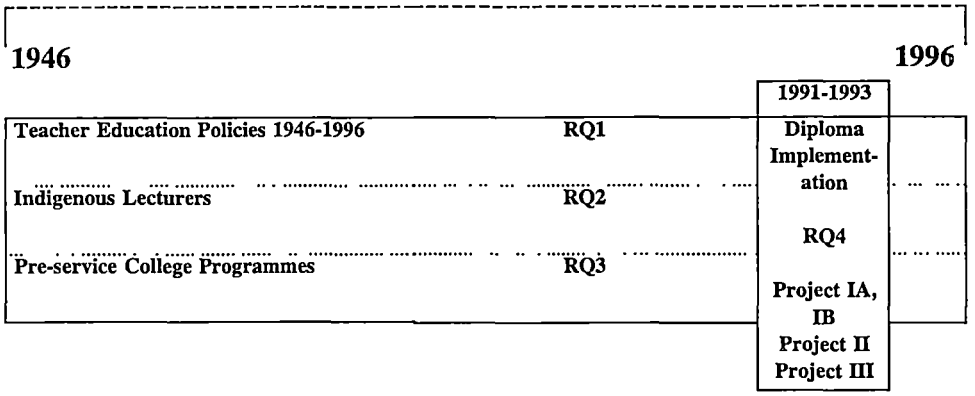
Research Questions, i.e., Research Questions 1, 2 and 3. It involved both secondary- and primary-data providing different perspectives, e.g., extensive literature review and historical reading, systematic document analysis, record searching, chronology compiling and the interviewing of people who 'were there', i.e., it was multi-site, multi-method and multi-person (Burns 2000). The Administration headquarters did not provide a teacher training officer until 1958, and centralised Mission statistics had not been required, so there were no consistent early folios in Port Moresby (Meere 1966). Emphasis on teacher education was also limited in the local, historical, political and educational literature studied, but these sources assisted the researcher's perspective of the position of teacher education in the developing country, added to the completeness of information and consequently towards validity (Burns 2000).

However, Research Question 1 was different from Research Questions 2 and 3. In Research Question 1, teacher education-related data was collected, selected and pieced together, like an intricate 'jigsaw', to give structure to the whole of the 50 years span of the study, i.e., 1946 to 1996, whereas Research Questions 2 and 3, while drawing on the same time span and structure, highlighted specific features related to Research Question 4 (staff and programmes). Research Question 2 data was focussed on the indigenisation of teacher education staff, and Research Question 3 data was focussed on the teachers' college programmes over time.

Research Question 4, on the other hand, was defined by the analysis of the rich classroom data collected in the original multi-instrument first and second-phase Diploma projects, plus some data drawn from the results of the first three Research Questions in the investigation. Table 4.1 shows how the four Research Questions fit together.

Results of the investigation of each of the Research Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 are reported in Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight respectively. The data are followed within each chapter by an immediate brief interpretive discussion or conclusion (Fox 1969:736).

TABLE 4.1
HOW THE FOUR RESEARCH QUESTIONS FIT TOGETHER



KEY

RQ1 What policies evolved to facilitates the implementation of teacher education from 1946 to 1996?

RQ2 What policies supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these relate to the work of the teacher education system?

RQ3 What historically constituted pre-service programmes for preparing teachers, including the new three year Diploma in Teaching (Primary)?

RQ4 Was the three year Diploma programme as implemented by staff in colleges between 1991 and 1993 congruent with policy objectives?

Data Collection Procedures, Subjects or Samples, and Materials or Instruments for Research Questions 1, 2 and 3

The first Research Question: ***What policies evolved to facilitate the implementation of teacher education from 1946 to 1996?***, sought an understanding of the Territories of Papua and New Guinea (TPNG) in the post-war period. Chapter Two gave the foundations leading into this period. Factors of leadership were pursued that related to increased schooling of indigenous children, for whom subsequently teachers would be needed. Material collection focussed on the growing formal teacher education system which became more complex by the 1990s.

Official records offered insight to various historical, political and administrative aspects of the growth and changes which took place in TPNG from 1946. Data on the actual preparation of teachers were embedded occasionally in literature on development, missionaries, literacy or universal primary education issues.

Missionary foundations supporting foreign missionaries, by the post-war period, had deeply vested interests in their TPNG resources. The original records, written in, for example, French or German and stored in the countries which sent the missionaries, were not pursued for this thesis. Christian church perspectives were published more recently, in personal accounts and denominational history (often to celebrate missionary anniversaries)

and these were very valuable materials (see, for example, Gray 1989; Wagner & Reiner 1989; Abel & Abel 1991; Prince & Prince 1991; White 1991; Gate 1993; SD/SSpS 1996: SSpS 1999).

This thesis, however, is from a Government perspective, in the sense that the journey forward after the war in the Pacific was given direction by Australian Government policies firstly and then by the independent Papua New Guinean Government. Government documents often dealt with details about Christian missions, as governments were responsible for the protection of the missionaries and for planning the growth of an overall inclusive education system from the 1970s onward.

It was anticipated there would be difficulty in examining policy implementation as different from policy development (Stewart 1999). While functioning committees or those formed to work on policy development gave recommendations in minutes or reports, checking was then required to see if any of these were accepted by higher authorities, if they were implemented and if so, how and how successfully.

With a dearth of detail about schooling or teacher education, documents from individuals working in specific regions during two decades following the second world war became important resources. The repeated compilation by the researcher of educational event chronologies (some of which are appendices) served to assist with a sense of pace of change as well as showing concurrent events.

A set of official reports for the Annual Principals' Conferences, during the years 1968-1996 were used as a basis for tracking more substantial teacher education realities in those years. Recommendations of the combined Community School Teachers College Student Association meetings gave a student perspective of college policies and contributed to triangulation of college data. Wherever possible 'voices' or verbatim quotations from representative or crucial participants in the PNG changes, e.g., early teachers, directors, politicians, principals, inspectors and teacher educators, were recorded expressing the special 'social flavour' of an era, as well as conscious triangulation of the data. The 'insight' and 'accuracy' was integral to validity (Burns 2000).

Assembling the data, in response to the first Research Question, it became obvious that teacher education as an entity, could be conceptualised between dates that acted as

chronological markers (Hoyle & John 1998). Firstly, 1946 to 1967, then 1968 to 1993. This latter period in turn divided according to teacher education events, into three parts and finally 1994 to 1996. These sections aided the selection of data presented in Chapter Five.

The second Research Question: ***What policies supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these relate to the work of the teacher education system?***, was answered by tracing localisation references and locating any mention of indigenous people being given recognised responsibility. This was especially notable in the preparing of PNG leadership and, in particular, lecturers and administrators for the community school teachers colleges.

People who were involved in the earliest localisation activities were interviewed either by telephone or face-to-face using semi-structured interview. Occasionally located in records were carefully kept schedules of the activities introduced to assist and prepare teachers to become college staff (associateship programmes). Mission literature, and official records of the Teacher Education Division and the Staff Development Unit of the NDOE; Australian Aid and the World Bank, recorded overall policy views as well as career paths and names of indigenous officers. Sampling lists of prominent positions gave indigenous names for patterns of locations, i.e., Assistant Secretaries for Teacher Education, Secretaries for Education, Ministers for Education, Professors of Education, UPNG. Correspondence to the Ministry in PNG and the UPNG librarian gave tentative lists which were adjusted when able to triangulate over the years of this study to ensure validity (see Appendices 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5). The data were presented in Chapter Six.

The third Research Question posed for the thesis: ***What historically constituted pre-service programmes for preparing teachers, including the new three year Diploma in Teaching (Primary)?***, required a closer look at the processes, syllabuses and programmes for preparation of primary teachers used in centres and colleges through the years.

A variety of appropriate official records were located for content selection, e.g., Australian Government report to the United Nations and samples of locally issued syllabuses and guidelines. In addition, studied were: curriculum workshop booklets, reports of conferences and the NDOE Teacher Education Research Project (1987 to 1989), universities' documentation and the minutes of the National Teacher Education Board of

Studies, and the Colleges' Academic and Governing Council meetings. These data were presented in Chapter Seven.

Processing of each of the first three Research Questions involved identification, collation, checking and triangulation of written and oral evidence, as well as summarising, synthesis analysis and re-selection for reducing volume. Three earlier academic colleagues were sought to read those chapters in order to give feedback and test 'truth' (Burns 2000).

The material collected answering the first three Research Questions provided also context data for the fourth Research Question related to the lead-up to the Diploma and its policy objectives, the staff in colleges and teacher education in PNG.

The Multi-Instrument Data Collection Procedures for Research Question 4 - Project I (A) and I (B), Project II and Project III

The fourth Research Question for the thesis: ***Was the three year Diploma programme as implemented by staff in colleges between 1991 and 1993 congruent with policy objectives?*** Data relating to the context and teaching activities of the staff working in the classrooms of the teachers colleges over the three year period 1991 to 1993 were the information gathered. The procedures, samples and instruments are described, in that order, for each of what were referred to as Diploma research 'projects', 'first and second-phases' (see Table 4.2).

TABLE 4.2
TIME-LINE FOR FIRST AND SECOND-PHASE DATA COLLECTION USED FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 4*

	1991				1992				1993			
	Term				Term				Term			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
PHASE 1												
Project I												
Part (A) Visits to staff in classrooms	✓	✓	✓									
Part (B) Meeting with principals and deputies				✓								
PHASE 2												
Project II												
Collection of staff inspection reports (r) for 1991, 1992 and 1993 at the end of 1993				r				r				r ✓
Project III												
Construction and distribution of college staff survey and return of responses												✓

* This is presented in Chapter Eight

Project I Part (A): The Classroom Situation of the College Lecturers During 1991

Individual staff were observed in their college classrooms, their environs observed and discussed and face-to-face and semi-structured interviews were recorded on paper, mostly after the interview appointment.

The sample consisted of 19 staff situated across six different colleges in four different provinces. There were 12 senior and seven junior staff members, four of whom were female. The sample were all the staff who had accepted the circular invitation to be visited. They were visited in the first, second and third school terms (see Table 4.2). This was not therefore a 'random selection' (Burns 2000). It was a self-selected, willing, small group of staff who wanted to be visited by the researcher for the purpose of having their work assisted or acknowledged (Fox 1969:321). As these staff all felt confident enough to ask to be visited, this could have tilted data towards a bias in favour of the situation of staff in colleges (Burns 2000). However as mentioned, they did represent seniors and juniors and colleges where these staff were situated were both church and government and geographically mixed being in the city, a provincial town and in a rural environment.

The recording instrument for observations and interviews was a list of nine areas developed during the visits which evolved into questions through interaction with the staff over the three terms (see Appendix 4.1 Project I Part (A) - The Classroom Situation of the College Lecturers during 1991). Broad categories for observation were work-place tasks, sharing with other professional staff and new approaches or concerns. (These are similar to areas found later to be studied in Australia by Churchill 1996).

Project I Part (B): The Contribution of the Principals and Deputy Principals at the Annual Principals' Conference 1991

Ideas on implementation of the new Diploma were gained from the group of principals and deputy principals in conference during a two hour workshop session, in October 1991. The principals and deputies formed four groups and discussed their thinking related to three questions about leadership perspectives, designed for this session. Their ideas were recorded on charts for their verbal presentation to the remaining groups and in this data gathering mode was similar to a modified Focus Group (Burns 2000).

The comprehensive sample consisted of all the 20 administrators in whose colleges staff were implementing the new teaching programmes. The sample comprised four overseas principals, and 16 national principals and deputy principals.

A set of three questions relating to their administration of the new programme was distributed (see Appendix 4.2: Project I Part (B) - Survey of Principals and Deputies at APC 1991). Broad categories for the questions were, in order, the new programme needs, administrative changes for implementing the Diploma and Certificate graduands' deficiencies.

The results of Project I (A) and (B) lead to the conceptualisation of the Criteria Template for the analysis of the staff reports (Project II) and the preparation of the reflective (retrospective) staff questionnaire and its analysis (Project III).

Project II: A Content Analysis of Staff Inspection Records for the Years 1991, 1992 and 1993

This project consisted of collecting a sample of inspection reports, reading each staff report in that sample, then applying an evidence-collecting Criteria Template to the content of each document. The Template was derived from preliminary analysis of results of Project I (A) and (B) (see Appendix 4.3).

An Inspector's copy of college staff performance reports assembled for 1991, 1992 and 1993 constituted the sample. There were two teacher education inspectors who were annually each allocated provincial regions. The ten colleges were situated in seven provinces. A geographical region for travel convenience included several provinces and colleges. After the completion of performance report writing in 1993, when the proposal of collecting inspectors' reports was made and agreed, copies of 1991 and 1992 reports written by one inspector (the researcher) were available for the sample of staff reports, plus the reports written by both inspectors in 1993. The second inspector had only his 1993 copies. This meant the reports for staff in the colleges in his geographical region were not included for 1991 and 1992 (see Table 4.3).

TABLE 4.3
ORIGIN OF SAMPLE OF INSPECTORS' REPORTS USED FOR PROJECT II IN RESEARCH QUESTION 4**

1991		1992		1993		
College	**Reports**	**College**	**Reports**	**College**	**Reports**	**Total**
Gaulim	4	Gaulim	2	Gaulim	3	
Holy Trinity	4	Holy Trinity	2	Holy Trinity	7	
Kabaleo	4	Kabaleo	3	Kabaleo	3	
Vunakanau	1	Vunakanau	2	Vunakanau	2	
Port Moresby	4	Port Moresby	4	Port Moresby	8	
		Balob	5	Balob	3	
				Sonoma	2	
				* Kaindi (Catholic)	5	
				* Madang (Government)	8	
				* Dauli (Protestant)	2	
	17		18	* Inspector No 2 (15)	43	78

** This is presented in Chapter Eight.

The vehicle for collecting data from the sample, was the annual routine of official performance reports for applicants who were accepted for inspection. All reports were written on a form (see Appendix 4.4) and to the same format which required comments under these following six headings:

1. Introduction and Academic Background;
2. Evidence of Professional Development;
3. Preparation and Planning of Allocated Work;
4. Classroom Teaching Effectiveness.
5. Administrative Duties, and
6. Contributions: to Students, as a Staff Member and to Community.

Automatic input to the report, co-ordinated by the inspector, was from those involved with the staff member within the college during the year and optional was submission of a written self-assessment. The sample comprised a total of 78 staff reports written at colleges as detailed in Table 4.3. This was more than 50 percent of staff reports written for 1991 and 1992 and all staff reports for 1993. There are examples of staff reports included (see Appendix 8.3).

The analysis of these reports was carried out with an instrument dubbed the Template Criteria (see Appendix 4.3 Project II - Staff Reports 1991, 1992, 1993). The Criteria are three emergent themes identified as Ownership, Openness and 'A New Kind of Teacher'.

Each of the themes had a number of nominated factors.

Project III: A Survey of Lecturer Experience and Opinion of the PNG Diploma in Teaching (Primary) 1993

A questionnaire asked staff working in the colleges in November 1993 to reflect in retrospect on their experience with the preparation for and the teaching of the first cohort of Diploma student-teachers.

Ten survey questions were constructed and distributed by airmail to all provincial colleges at the end of the third year of the programme, i.e., 1993. The questions were on two sheets and five of them comprised several parts. The cost-considered format of the structured sheets may have confined the respondents to writing too briefly on lines provided, although many used the reverse to expand particular ideas.

The subjects were all the academic staff in all the pre-service teachers' colleges. The 52 respondents were representative as shown in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4
COLLEGES, STAFF AND SURVEY RESPONDENTS FOR PROJECT III IN RESEARCH QUESTION 4**

Colleges	Staff on Strength November 1993*	Respondents (N=52)
Dauli	11	4
Gaulim	10	7
Holy Trinity	17	11
Kabaleo	11	6
Kaindi	17	10
Madang	26	8
Vunakanau	11	6
Total	103	52
Balob	22	Responses lost in mail
Sonoma	5	Independent SDA college closed early
* 10 staff vacancies **Categories of Respondent** The 52 respondents held the following positions in 1993: Principal 2; Deputy Principal 4; Senior Lecturer 16; Lecturer 30. National Staff: 41 respondents; Overseas 11 respondents		
Port Moresby (excluded here as new Diploma was Vocational specialisation, reported separately).		

** This is presented in Chapter Eight

The questionnaire was the instrument (see Appendix 4.6 Survey of Lecturer Experience and Opinion at the Conclusion of the Third Year of the First Diploma in Teaching (Primary) Programme, 1993). There are sample responses from staff included (see Appendix 8.4).

Data Analysis Approaches for the Projects in Research Question 4

As highlighted in the Introduction, the historical approach to the procedure of data collection was similar for the first three research questions. However, Research Question 4's focus was the classroom and the data analysis approaches to define the results of Project I (Part A), Project I (Part B), Project II and Project III were each different.

Project I Part (A)

The key to observations and questions used for the analysis of observations and interviews conducted to gather data for Project I Part (A) was shown in Appendix 4.1. It is a list of nine questions with sub-questions which evolved during contact with the small sample of college staff in 1991. The Alpha referencing, A to I, is retained only on the copy of the original shown in the appendix because it is the system that was used in the first three stages of analysing raw data and they retain that code to facilitate ease of following by the reader. For the Results reported in the body of this thesis and any further reference to it, the letters have been replaced with numerals 1 to 9, respectively.

The initial raw data comprised the researcher's collapsed notes compiled into a formal typed page of responses for each person in the sample (N=19). This was completed by the end of the third term visit in 1991. The 19 persons' individual data were analysed to produce combined data. Each question and sub-question was quantitatively or qualitatively recorded. Thus the data was represented as figures and percentage as well as direct quotations. It was recorded under headings, which correspond to the subject of the nine questions, and in turn had flowed from the contact between the staff in the classrooms, their environment and the researcher. The key headings are as follows:

A Original Programme Submission

B Course Outlines

C Own Content

D Workshops Assistance

E Feelings of Concern or Confidence

F Integration Within Strands and between Strands and By Whom?

G Changes Made to Teaching Style

H Assessment Newly Demonstrated

I Other Related Curriculum Observations

From these headings, the emerging pattern seen was the beginning of themes (Burns 2000). Data were reduced into these themes in the results as follows:

(A, B, C) became 1, 2 and 3

Lecturers' Involvement in the Preparation Activities (Interview Questions 1-3)

1. Whole college programme
2. Subject course outline
3. Own lecture content

(D, E, F) became 4, 5 and 6

Lecturers' Interaction with Others (Interview Questions 4-6)

4. National workshops
5. Staff perceptions of own work
6. Administration contributing to programme integration.

(G, H, I) became 7, 8 and 9

Changes in Teaching and Assessment Methods and Curriculum Issues Observed (Interview Questions 7-9)

7. Changes in teaching methods
8. Changes in assessment methods
9. Other curriculum issues observed: clusters of programme implementation data: resources, staff, students, administration.

The results are reported in Chapter Eight. For the reader who wanted to replicate this study, the study commenced with where staff members saw themselves as being, and their interests, i.e., *classroom job, interaction with others, own concerns and what was new.* (What was built around those aspects was the PNG professional situation.)

Project I Part (B)

Three questions were handed to each of the 20 administrators comprising the sample. The questions (Appendix 4.2) were to probe Diploma planning in the current year, changes to their administrative action in 1991 and their perceptions of Certificate graduands. Collective responses were combined by the participants into representative charts and later collated for their checking and an administrators' perspective (see Appendix 8.2).

The Part (B) chart material Questions 1 and 3 were compared to elucidate connections between Diploma offerings planned for the new programme and demonstrated deficiencies of the Certificate graduands (Table 8.4). In Question 1 the categories Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes were given to the administrators as guides. The researcher used a modified sort (Burns 2000). Responses of the sample for each category were placed also under the three sub-categories: Professional, Personal and Community. These subcategories were chosen for consistency. In Question 2, the participants charted material for administrative change. This was sorted, according to the data given by administrators, into areas, i.e., Timetable Change, Assessment Change and Staff Change (Table 8.3). In Question 3, the participants charted material for ten deficiencies in the current graduands. The researcher sorted the administrative ideas and matched these with 22 responses from Questions 1 or 2. The results are reported in Chapter Eight.

Project II

Upon further iterative analysis of the data generated by Project I Part (A) and (B), three themes were defined as they related to the situation of the college lecturers, i.e., 'ownership', 'openness' and a 'new kind of teacher'. These themes provided a continued focus on the lecturers for the researcher and the processing was as follows:

The Template Criteria (Appendix 4.3).

Ownership

1. Ownership of the college programme
2. Ownership of the course outline
3. Ownership of lecture preparation and content

Openness

4. Openness with others in workshops and in the strand
5. Openness evidenced in action, material in college
6. Openness expressed working with others

A 'new kind of teacher'

7. A new kind of teacher as identified in PNG research booklets
8. A new kind of teacher examples of 'independent learners' motivated by staff
9. A new kind of teacher 'student-centred' teaching and assessing with a student focus.

These three themes above, were used then to find evidence of connected issues within the written content of staff performance reports. Recalling that these staff reports were written to an established 'official format' and contributed to by various professional people, and presented in the cautious language of the inspectorate, the translation exercise was not straight forward. Phrases or ideas that corresponded with the three themes were collected from reading whole sets of reports. New patterns emerged within the themes, i.e., 'involvement' and 'change and development'. These were used in presenting the analysis.

Ownership

1. Involvement in original college programme 1990-1993
2. Involvement in writing college course outlines
3. Involvement in preparing lecture content

Openness

4. Change and development through general professional contacts
5. Change and development evidenced by lecturer reaction
6. Change and development through articulation of ideas within the college

A 'New Kind' of Teacher

7. Indication of staff knowledge of proposed changes.
8. Opportunities for 'independent learners' and tertiary teaching strategies.

The expanded analysis is under the above themes and patterns in the contents of the Chapter Eight report.

Project III

The college staff questionnaire at the end of 1993 (Appendix 4.5 and 4.6) became linked in theory with Project I (both Part A and Part B) and consequently with Project II, by ideas derived from the results of Project I, and was concurrently related to TERP theory and the NEB/ATE (1990) framework document.

Question 1	College staff 'continuity' in a particular college as a factor in 'ownership'
Questions 2-5	College staff 'involvement' in developing the new Diploma as a factor in 'ownership'
Questions 6-7	More 'student-centred' teaching and 'independent-learning'
Question 8	More staff 'openness' - articulation, sharing, collegiality
Question 9	More agreement on a vision of a 'new kind of teacher'
Question 10	More relevant resources for lecturers

Responses flown from colleges were submitted by the administration together in one envelope and were therefore easily grouped into whole college perspectives or still individual perspectives, where appropriate, when analysing. To this point, the data still were seen as from individuals, to gain a composite picture. The coincidence of delivery suggested 'whole colleges', although the researcher did not want to be seen to be comparing and contrasting or appraising colleges. The response data for each of the Questions 1 to 10 was read carefully and considered a unique 'life history' (Denzin 1989) of the Diploma. The data were reported in the categories suggested by the Questions 1 to 10 listed above.

A first report on the data collected in this questionnaire was completed in 1995 and sent, with the assistance of my supervisor, Professor Williamson, and Mr Modakewau, Assistant Secretary for SD&TD at the NDOE in Waigani, to each PNG college staff member (see Appendix 4.7 (a) (b). This was to gain feedback or in case the collective ideas were of any assistance in staff on-going re-evaluation of their programmes (see Appendices 4.8 for the report on the data posted to PNG in February 1995). The analysis is part of the contents of Chapter Eight.

Returning to the fourth Research Question, *Was the three year Diploma programme as implemented by staff in colleges between 1991 and 1993* ***congruent with policy***

objectives? Analysis of data gathered by Projects I, II and III provided insights on the implementation of the three years of the Diploma programme by staff. The data was analysed for the congruency of the implementation with policy objectives.

The flow of steps to analyse the data and to check this congruency with policy are listed:

- Described 'on-going' teacher education policy (Appendix 8.7)
- Described recent 'ad-hoc' teacher education policy (Appendix 8.7)
- Identified programme data from Research Question 3 (Chapter Seven) as operational policy (McNamara 1989) (Appendix 8.8) and a new programme policy (NEB/ATE Framework 1990) (Appendix 7.5)
- Analysed programme (curriculum) policy document into smaller segments (Table 8.15)
- Listed under POLICY, segments of the programme document which became new curriculum policy objectives (Appendix 8.10)
- Listed under ACTION, each item where there were corresponding data from Research Question 4 or where appropriate, data from the other three chapters (Appendix 8.10)
- Identified congruencies under McNamara (Table 8.14)
- Identified congruencies under NEB/ATE Framework (Table 8.15)
- Analysed and described congruencies in Chapter Eight (pp210-216)

ISSUES OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

In the above methodology discussion of the separate Research Questions repeatedly mention has been made of the action taken to accommodate reliability and validity. These are major concerns in a thesis such as this, that depends largely upon historical records and self-reporting, and the qualitative investigator role has been assumed seriously (Denzin & Lincoln Editors 1998).

While the four Research Questions were related, there were two separate research modes used. One kind was the historical education means for Research Questions 1, 2 and 3 which investigated integrated accounts for clues and authenticity from primary and secondary literature and from communication with still living participants. Internal and external criticism questioned the reliability and validity of evidence which was part of a

cycle of locating, reflecting, comparing, revising and gaining criticism from others (Burns 2000). Historical actors assisted perspectives and a longitudinal teacher education construct on policies (Chapter Five), staff localisation (Chapter Six) and programmes (Chapter Seven) over a 50-year spectrum also triangulated data. This approach is consistent with accepted techniques (Burns 2000).

The other qualitative data collection mode was more participatory which for Research Question 4 was creating new data through dialogues with the indigenous college lecturers and administrators about classroom related events over a three-year period. Triangulation was possible through observations, interviews and small group discussion, formalised joint reporting on classroom events and a questionnaire to classrooms staff for their reflections. The writer's cross-checking and analysis followed as an integral activity (Vulliamy, Lewin & Stephens 1990:160-161).

To ensure trustworthiness and credibility, data which were part of the extraordinary story of Papua New Guinea, but may be labelled subjective, were omitted and substantial verification was attempted throughout. In sum, the repetition of three teacher education development aspects - policy, staff and programmes on the same time-line; the multi-instrument application to classroom/college scenes in the 1991-1993 period and the indigenous place and voice throughout, together, interwove many facets of teacher education. The approaches taken fit with the academic paradigms that were shifting over the ten year period of the thesis writing (Lincoln & Guba 2000).

As a participant or an observer in the environment for a long period of time I was not detached but tried to be objective by supplying detailed, varied and plentiful quotations from those closest to the action. In this sense both the reader and the writer 'share responsibility for verification' (Glaser & Strauss 1967).

CONCLUSION

The data for Research Questions 1, 2 and 3 describe and analyse and consequently narrate the teacher education policy and practice from 1946 to 1996. The data for Research Question 4 cut across these three 'streams' of broader data (see Table 4.1). They put a lecturer's lens on the new Diploma implementation from 1990/91 to 1993 and on planning for 1994 focusing those years and the congruence with intentions.

What follow in this thesis are the Results for Research Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4. These are analysed in Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight respectively before a Discussion in Chapter Nine. The five chapters pursue *a particular aspect* of nation-building, teacher education, demonstrated not to be highlighted in literature and often lost in official records between primary level projections and higher education. A closer view of the teachers' college classrooms is given by those 'on the inside' themselves and presented in Chapter Eight.

The next chapter, Chapter Five, begins the pursuance of first level schooling in mid-1946 and traces the evolution of the teacher preparation policy and practice which shaped it as outlined in the Methodology.

Plate 4.1: A Bush Material Classroom and a New One with an Iron Roof

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH QUESTION 1: WHAT POLICIES EVOLVED TO FACILITATE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FROM 1946 TO 1996?

INTRODUCTION

A detailed analysis of the historical evolution of post-war teacher preparation was carried out to answer four research questions. The findings of the first of the study's research questions, *What polices evolved to facilitate the implementation of teacher education from 1946 to 1996?* are presented in this chapter. The reader will then find that the emphasis in Research Question 2 is the process of localisation of college staff, the emphasis in Research Question 3 is the programmes in the colleges over time and the emphasis in Research Question 4 is the classroom implementation of the new Diploma programme, 1991 to 1993.

This chapter is a longitudinal view of the 50 years 1946 to 1996 with emphasis on the policies. The view is enhanced by citing people who contributed to the formulation of the policies, or whose work was the implementation that made teacher education happen for the student-teachers in Papua and New Guinea. Material initially is divided according to significant major teacher education policy directions and the various perspectives give substance to the evolution. This content framework (Table 5.1) will assist the reader.

POST-WAR TEACHER TRAINING POLICIES 1946-1967

Introduction

Chapter Two was about the first settlements of outsiders in Papua New Guinea, and their involvement in development and schooling. Both World Wars I and II encroached in a dramatic way on the people living in the eastern half of this small island. With the on-going attention of the United Nations it was the task of Australia to prepare the people for political independence. This chapter takes up the study from that background, and indicates leadership which moved educational policies forward.

TABLE 5.1: CONTENT FRAMEWORK FOR THE CHAPTER

Years	Policies	Perspectives Presented
1946 to 1967	• Creation of the Department of Education and the appointment of a Director, 1946 • Education Ordinance, 1952 • Hasluck's Objectives 1954/1956 • Formation of the Teacher Training Division of the Department of Education, 1958	Directors Ministers Missionaries Administrators Teachers
1968 to 1976	• Introduction of an annual conference for officers-in-charge of teacher training institutions commencing the consolidation of resources, 1968 • Creation of a unified Teaching Service, 1970 • Provincial Government, 1976	Conferees Principals Student-teachers Public servants Academics Researchers
1977 to 1989	• Ministerial Statement on Teachers College Curriculum K Kale, 1977 • Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) - McNamara Report, 1989	
1990 to 1993	• National Education Board (NEB) creation of the ad hoc committee Association of Teacher Education (ATE) chaired by Professor Avalos, University of Papua New Guinea, 1990 • Introduction of a three year Diploma in all primary teachers colleges in 1991	
1994 to 1996	• Rejection by the Minister for Education of the NEB submission for commencement of the National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE), 1994 and a request for an alternative	Politicians Consultants

The First Director, Mr W Groves

As the Territory people emerged from World War II with the Christian missions disrupted and the Australian government still procrastinating about native education, it was obvious that resources and teachers were inadequate. The Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU) education officer, Camilla Wedgwood, had presented a 30 year development plan for the combined region and it was pursued in terms of the appointment of a director. The first Director, Mr Groves, told the local House of Assembly in 1952, when tabling his simply worded Education Ordinance (1952), that while determining policies he was starting 'from scratch' with no policy base (Smith 1972:323). There was no acknowledgment of what policies had come before. Mr Grove's personal philosophy was reflected in his interpretation of the role of the Department of Education. When there were only five Administration schools in Papua, in the absence of other administrative departments, he felt obliged to respond to social needs. Between 1947 and 1950 there was Education Department financial outlay on: a women's hostel in Port Moresby, broadcasts relayed in English and vernacular, library services to 30 outstations, therapy for the leprosy colony, the Boy Scouts, arts and science societies and preservation of native

music and handcrafts.

Mr Groves was an anthropologist and linguist and his educational leadership in the mandated Territory of New Guinea, Nauru, the British Solomon Islands and the Northern Territory of Australia, war service and post-war teaching at Sogeri, Papua all gave him a broad view of education. He tried to understand indigenous people, respected their cultures and saw how a foreign schooling system needed to 'blend' with what already existed in the lives of the children (Duncan 1974).

The organisation in 1944 entailed, in sequence, vernacular and village primary school, post-primary area school, then the most able students to intermediate school for entrance to trades, clerical, teacher or health aide training. This plan excluded what the missions were doing independently. However, in 1948, the first official Five Year Plan, produced by the Department of Education, introduced the following: four years for missions to teach in the vernacular, an area or village higher school, which was seen more as a community development centre, and a district central school. Other specialist centres were for employment preparation. There were 101 Administration teachers employed in Papua and New Guinea. Of these, nine 'European' and 66 'native' teachers worked in 28 schools with 2 108 native pupils.

The new Commonwealth Minister for Territories, Mr Paul Hasluck, frustrated by what he saw as Grove's tardiness, issued a directive stating that the provision of education at primary level was now a priority. He then supported the creation of a Department of Native Affairs and a Department of Labour to deal with what Mr Groves had attempted.

Policy Contradictions

Director Groves planned that after the first cohort of native children had completed a nine year cycle, the Administration system would provide secondary schools to better ground future teachers. The Minister, Mr Hasluck, issued opposite directives, which included that priority would continue to be primary schooling for all children in controlled areas, that they read and write in English and that co-operation with the missions continue but with emphasis on teacher training. It was argued that strong primary schooling foundations, prior to government expansion, were required (Hasluck 1976). From 1955 Groves functioned somewhat like an administrative officer to Hasluck who directed the

department from Canberra (Duncan 1974:185).

In 1953 a proposal was revived to hand all education to the missions. Groves was sympathetic to both groups, the Mission and the Administration schools. He wanted missions to be 'guided' by 'research' and 'demonstration' by the Administration whom he saw as a 'pacemaker' (Smith 1972:325). The Education Ordinance (1952) provided for the formation of a Joint Education Advisory Board and District Education Committees; compulsory registration of all qualified teachers and recognition of eligible mission schools; the Director of Education to determine language usage in schools; compulsory attendance and the payment of grants-in-aid to missions for all registered teachers they employed. The 1952 Ordinance also authorised the issue of Regulations regarding standards, secular curriculum, discipline, inspections, teachers, qualifications and training, but serious implementation was not attempted until after 1956 due to discord about pace between external Australian perceptions and internal realities (Duncan 1972:185).

Mr Groves believed that each teacher should 'choose and adapt his subject matter for his local situations' (Smith 1972:325). In 1953 at Vunamami, 20 miles from Rabaul, an Administration school staffed by teachers, Mr V McNamara and Darius ToMamua attempted this focus. Academic teaching content was based on the farming cycle and other lessons supported the animal husbandry and agricultural notions. For example, Vin McNamara writing of his experiences says of the 1950s,

> Boisen wanted me to develop my own teaching material, based on the surroundings of the school and (indigenous) farm activities - a good idea in any case, but particularly so in view of the fact that the only teaching materials available at the time seemed to be old school text books written for various Australian States (McNamara 1979:11).

Mr McNamara remained at Vunamami four years, and saw the arrival of Mr E Fitzgerald there to begin teacher training in 1956. McNamara analysed progress as:

> ... establishment of one-man Teacher Training Centres for a one year programme to train primary teachers ... the Oxford English course student and teacher books ... with their revolutionary new approach to the teaching of English as a second language, the emphasis being on oral before moving to written English (McNamara 1979:12).

The Director treated Vunamami Rural Education Centre, initiated and supervised by the Rabaul District Education Officer (DEO), Mr F Boisen, as a model to be copied in other parts of the Territory: Central School, together with Village Higher School and later a Teacher Training Centre. However, the Local Government Council which was

contributing money was not so pleased, and stated that the gardening was interfering with the real school work and young boys should not board away from the village (Louisson 1974).

Language policy, as seen by Mr Groves, was adaptation to the local environment and literacy to him did not mean only literacy in English. At times the learning of English, he said, was like 'time out of life' and unnecessary (Duncan 1974:181). He saw the scope of education as being close to the village. So while the Administration policy was in favour of English, he allowed the missions to continue with vernacular languages and Pidgin. At the same time as the Trusteeship Council of the United Nations urged English language improvement, practitioners saw that the child learned more easily through Pidgin, even the goal of English. The use of vernacular, in an area in which it was not the mother tongue, was eventually halted, upsetting mainly the Lutheran missions. This had meant many people were made literate in another PNG language but not in their own, nor in English.

The shortage of teachers inhibited the expansion envisaged by Minister Hasluck. Both local communities and the United Nations were pushing for more schools to be opened. In the period 1946 to 1954 government teacher training 'centres' situated at Sogeri, Dregerhafen and Kerevat produced 179 teachers. Then two years of post-primary schooling was introduced as the entry level in an effort to raise standards but it delayed output. From 1953, courses were divided into three categories, A, B and C. The 'A' Course was for entry from primary school and most missions ran this one-year course. It qualified trainees to teach in the first three years of a village school. The 'C' Course took candidates with highest level and the 'B' Course was at first an emergency course introduced in 1955 as a one year extension of six central schools. These categories (A, B and C) remained, but lengths of 'courses' varied and college entrance qualifications were raised and lowered according to demand. The quality of intake improved as the primary schools grew, but the field demand for teachers increased.

Some of the Pioneering Tensions Handled by the First Director

Mr Groves was required to work with complex administrative situations. Examples of the accepted tensions of the period are listed briefly below.

- While the Administrator and the few Administration Departments that existed worked for the 'whole' country, New Guinea was a Trust Territory, reported on annually and visited by United Nations' representatives and the inhabitants were Australian Protected Persons. Papua remained a Possession of the Crown through the Australian Government and with citizenship rights. The Director sent policy circulars applying to teachers, schools and children in either or both of the Territories (Groves 1954 Memoranda Nos 28, 29 and 30).

- There was the European schooling system, for the children of mainly Australian foreign workers, as well as two Chinese schools including mixed-race Asian children and the Native system. They were three acknowledged different systems, the former groups maintained at the standards of Queensland or New South Wales syllabuses and the latter without a defined syllabus. The Report to United Nations 1959/1962 listed the Intermediate Certificate as Standards 7, 8 and 9, with 856 candidates in New Guinea.

- The European schools were in the town areas where society was imitating a British colonial lifestyle 'imitating outward signs and missing the inward grace' (Porter 1993:93). The Native schools were mainly in rural and remote traditional village areas.

- While there were Administration or Mission schools, there were 23 different Mission groups in 1960. Degrees of competition and suspicion existed between them as well as each had its own mission-field policies from religious foundations in overseas countries. They responded to requirements in Germany, states of Australia and USA.

- The Roman Catholic Mission conducted town schools for European and mixed-race children as well as rural schools in the Native system.

- Parents of school children who were working side-by-side in the Administration, had a variety of attitudes to the natives but normally saw as essential their children being in separated schools.

- There were expatriate teachers being prepared in, or recruited from, Australia to teach in either European or Native schools and there was slow in-country production of

Native teachers for Native schools (Groves 1954 Memoranda Nos 9 and 10).

- There was finance and direction from Canberra public servants and local taxes and in-country knowledge with often poor technical and language communications causing misunderstandings.

Emergent Native Teacher Training Categories

The era of the late-1940s to 1960s was a frontier educational milieu. For an overview of progress 1946 to 1967 see Appendix 5.1. Some of the policy statements which emerged about in-country Native Teacher Training surrounded the six categories below:

(1) Entrance Level. The academic entrance requirement was approximate in early years, as the school standards varied between schools, between the two Territories and later between Administration and Mission schools. Flexibility was shown according to: the school level at which the applicants would teach or how long the village area of the candidate had been under 'control'; 'maturity' of applicants was considered to the degree 'responsibility' was anticipated in a school. Simple physical, written or oral tests were conducted at different stages by the Administration.

(2) Length of Programme. This was related to the recognition by the Administration of the need for more teachers and was decided by the pressure of field demand, the availability of potential applicants and the finance for basic facilities in a training centre.

(3) Centres. Administration and Missions frequently opened and closed temporary training venues at different locations. Often bush material houses were built as boarding facilities attached to operating schools and stations, or deserted war remnant buildings were identified (Groves 1954 Memorandum No 50).

(4) Curriculum. What was taught in a 'course' swung between 'method' for different levels, classes or 'standards' in the school and 'content' for the student-teacher or what lessons to teach. There was a guide for teacher trainers 1948, a 1950 Syllabus and a 1954 Teacher Training Syllabus. Adaptations and improvisation were normal. Terms or labels used varied, as a need for consistent communication amongst teacher

educators was only gradually apparent (Groves 1954 Memorandum No 16).

(5) Final Written and Practical Examinations. At times these were centralised or de-centralised, whole or in-part for Administration centres. Missions trained teachers separately, and there was no central registration of field teachers until after 1955.

(6) Resources. The literature has minimal reference to operations or curriculum details at the centres and instructional materials were a minor consideration. Boarding venues were identified and finances allocated. Allocations were used for basics: one or two European staff, transporting students to the centre, essential food (tinned margarine, rice, salt, tea, sugar and wheatmeal), mosquito nets and writing equipment. The local bush or beach environment offered recreation and materials to assist with classroom building and teaching aids (Parle 1948; Groves 1954).

While the quality of college staffing would become a concern, it was not highlighted in the available data.

By late 1957, the government native primary school enrolments were progressing but only one quarter of what was planned above primary level achieved. Mr Bill Groves retired in 1958. He had caused exasperation to his senior officers regarding gradualist policies for the two Territories but he handled a very difficult fragmented era with concern for people. He had contact with the Territory for more than 35 years and is remembered respectfully by many with whom he worked as 'Pappy Groves' or 'Poppa' (Duncan 1974:186).

The Second Director, Mr G Roscoe 1958-1962

When, as the Deputy Director of Education in 1953, Mr Roscoe spoke to a long paper at the conference of the British Psychological Society in Brisbane, he listed anthropologists whose studies in New Guinea he said had helped decide what to teach in schools but he suggested research by psychologists was now needed to find out how to teach (Roscoe 1954). His paper was preoccupied with the 'mentality of native people' and intelligence tests. He pointed out that a 'native' was interested in family matters and when dealing with natives in Papua and New Guinea, he was often reminded of similar people in rural Queensland where he worked earlier. He concluded his paper by speaking in a way which may have reflected his times rather than any personal prejudices:

> It is a bad mistake to regard primitive men as inferior beings, of low intelligence, animal instincts, and beastly habits. It is nearly as bad to become sentimental about "brown brother", and imagine the noble savage has no faults. The wise investigator will combine sympathetic and friendly attitude to the Native people with realistic and objective view of their behaviour. Research carried out along these lines will be richly rewarded (Roscoe 1954:772-782).

In 1958 Mr Roscoe began his four year term as the second Director of Education. His plans were involved with Universal Primary Education (UPE). He had the advantage of continuity and extensive travel throughout the two Territories and was keen to advance both secondary and teacher training to achieve UPE by 1973. His plans were supported by the Minister, whose Canberra staff now had clear proposals on which to base funding requests from Treasury in Australia. His policies were not a shift, after the understandably erratic commencement of the Department. He was in a position to build onto the initial spade-work of the missions and Groves and implement the next stages.

Roscoe created the position of Chief of Division Teacher Training, positions for four Regional Inspectors (G Crouch, G Gibson, V McNamara, A Shanley) and 18 District Education Officers (DEO). Appointments resulted in more co-ordination of work throughout the whole country. Transport was very limited and fitness for walking long distances was an essential criterion for appointment. The itinerant officers included the teacher training centres in their visiting schedule and conducted the regular final practical teaching examinations in the isolated mission stations, at times taking government teachers college staff for assistance. The recently 'contacted' highlands region schools building plan was accelerated, and in 1961 additional teachers were provided via the six month 'E' Courses ('E' for Emergency but also European). The training within the Territory was for 30 mature Australians and two groups were prepared annually. This source of mainly single, European (migrant) male teachers for remote schools, continued for another eight years and supplied over 500 administration primary teachers for indigenous children. A small number of untrained European Mission teachers were included allowing them to qualify for registration, and is an example of cooperation offered by the government.

Mr Hasluck had reported to the Australian Parliament in 1957, that post-primary education was gradually being extended but that tertiary must wait until primary was more widely available. To provide primary schooling he needed teachers, so he saw primary teacher training as flowing from 'post-primary', as there was no tertiary route available. In 1962, the United Nations report criticised the pace of change and recommended a PNG House

of Assembly elected by the indigenous people and that secondary and higher education be priorities. The progress of schooling and teacher training, mainly by the Christian missions to the early 1960s, has been traced through the work of those implementing isolated patches of action. Policies of the Minister for Territories are now explored, especially where teacher training fitted into his broader vision.

Minister for Territories, the Honourable Paul M C Hasluck, 1951-1963

Writing about Education, Policy and Planning, in the *Encyclopaedia of Papua New Guinea*, K R McKinnon (Director 1967-1973) pointed out that in the early post-war period Australians as trustees had to develop educational guidelines in the absence of any informed indigenous opinion or policies (1972:104). McKinnon cites aims given to the Department in 1956 by the Minister for Territories, Mr Paul Hasluck, which he sees as the first firm policy statement (Figure 5.1).

In later years, Mr Hasluck wrote that more could have been achieved in education in the first decade after the war (Hasluck 1976:99). During his orientation visit for two weeks in 1951, he noted the limited involvement of natives in decision-making in their own country as due in part to lack of education. Henceforth, while dwelling on diverse issues including land use and ownership, labour regulations, subsistence agriculture improvements, local councils as basic political education and administrative structures, he accelerated primary education for natives. He prioritised indigenous needs over those of the expatriate and business interests. His public reference to Papua and New Guinea being 'their own country' was a new concept and he visited regularly conducting himself in a low-key manner.

Hasluck supervised the recruitment of Australians for Territory work, in particular patrol officers and public servants whose numbers and standards of performance he was intent on accelerating and improving. The numbers grew from 1 300 personnel in 1951 to 1 900 in 1955. Mr Hasluck was quoted by his biographer as having the following reflections:

> ... improvements he was responsible for generating in the structure of public administration in Papua New Guinea were the most "substantial and lasting achievements ...". Without this initial effort, it is doubtful whether Hasluck or his successors would have been able to achieve as much as they did in the provision of education, health, and other services to the indigenous population of the territory. (Porter 1993:97)

Administrator Jack K Murray, who served from 1945 to 1952, had worked hard to liaise with all parties in the chaotic post-war period, so his withdrawal by the Minister upset the missionaries who wrote letters of protest to Mr Hasluck. In Australia and by the business community the Minister was seen as 'soft on the natives' and not willing to perpetuate the *status quo* which he saw was a 'colonial' approach. Interpreted by him as taking from rather than giving to the natives. An address, at a Sydney business club in late-1951, sought to notify his position and gave 'the historical context into which Hasluck placed Australia's task within Papua New Guinea' (Porter 1993:105). An extract from that speech is given as follows:

> ... there is no doubt that any nation administering such a territory as New Guinea today, must, itself, place in the forefront of its thinking the new conception that the people of such a territory have rights of their own and, even if the nation did not do so, it would receive many forceful reminders from the rest of the world that such was the way in which modern civilisation wished it to view the problem. In that sense colonialism and colonial days have passed, and New Guinea could never be treated as a colony in the old meaning of the term. (Hasluck 1952:225)

The Public Service Association won, against Hasluck's efforts to have a single rather than a dual system for natives and Australians, two rates of pay and conditions. It was difficult for indigenous officers to qualify to enter the Public Service. Hasluck in 1952 began the idea of the Auxiliary Division of the Public Service of the Administration, as a policy for training and gaining indigenous officers. This directly impinged on localising teachers' college staff (see Chapter 6). Hasluck's own idealist description was that:

> New Guinea is neither a colony nor a territory: it is in the experimental stage which the world has not yet seen and which it may not be possible to create anywhere else in the world - an attempt at co-operation and mutual service between two peoples, a guardianship ... . (Hasluck 1952:228)

Minister Hasluck pushed for 'contact' with all areas of the islands, of which in 1956 a third was still outside administration control. The stages of contact included regular visits by the patrol officer and a share in developments such as a school teacher or an aid-post orderly. In a rugged mainland and scattered islands, it was hard to succeed quickly with education services. There was no control by the Administration of most of what formal schooling there was, and no central operating system for disparate efforts. He saw formal education as 'one of the most difficult aspects of practical administration he had to face' (Porter 1993:108).

Hasluck recognised the work the missions were doing in primary schooling by providing

FIGURE 5.1 HASLUCK'S OBJECTIVES AND PURPOSES FOR EDUCATIONAL POLICY

The objectives and purposes of educational policy in Papua and New Guinea as proposed by P Hasluck in 1954.

The objectives of educational policy should include ...

(a) the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the peoples of Papua and New Guinea;

(b) a blending of cultures;

and, in the absence of any indigenous body of religious faith, founded on native teaching or ritual,

(c) the voluntary acceptance of Christianity by the native peoples.

Following on from these objectives, the purposes of the Administration's educational activities should be ...

(a) To achieve mass literacy, that is to say to attempt to teach all native children to read and write in a common language.

(b) To show them the way, awaken their interest in, and assist in their progress towards achieving a higher material standard of living and towards a civilised mode of life.

(c) To teach them what is necessary to enable them, step by step as changes take place in the native communities in which they live, to manage their own political affairs, to engage in economic activities, to sustain a higher material standard of living, to adopt practices of civilisation in regard to social habit and custom and their daily mode of life and to develop and express their own personalities.

(d) To retain what is best in native life and to blend it with the influences of Western Civilisation so that, while gaining the advantages of Western Civilisation, they will not lose their proper pride in the fact that they have an identity as Papuans (Papua and New Guineans) and so that when in the generations to come, they may be required to manage their own affairs to a greater degree, they may feel a common bond among themselves as a people.

(e) To replace paganism by the acceptance of the Christian faith and the ritual of primitive life by the practice of religion.

(f) As a consequence of the foregoing, to strengthen the bonds of respect, mutual interest and loyalty to one another between Papua and New Guinea on the one hand and Australia on the other.

(Hasluck 1976:94)

financial subsidies in an effort to improve their standards. He was reserved in his opinion of what they were achieving with religious teaching. He made two observations, one was he noted the animosity between the different Christian denominations and he suggested while their attention may drive away regulatory fears and superstitions of paganism, 'eradication', he was not sure missionaries were trying hard enough to replace these with 'planting' new values that would support the indigenous people in the society for which they were headed. "Are we planting the virgin soil with anything that will produce a crop of ideas other than purely materialistic ideas?" (Porter 1993:137). He contemplated the results of this vacuum in a Papua New Guinean blended society. He rebuffed the unthinking transfer of Australian syllabus content to indigenous children. In the formulation of education policy, 'His concern was that there was not sufficient understanding on the part of some educators (in introducing an Australian based educational system) of what it was about the culture they were replacing and what new set of conditions they were seeking to create' (Porter 1993:112). The 'implications' of 'clashing cultures' and the 'consequences' were repeated themes as they had been for Mr Groves. He indicated the reality of the Australian teachers' challenge. In 1954 Hasluck wrote the beginnings of a document on the purposes of education which was the basis of later policies (Porter 1993:109).

Secondary schooling was only available for selected Australian scholarship holders although more intermediate schools were opened from where students could proceed to future secondary schools or to teacher training courses. Post-primary technical training and some agricultural centres were encouraged. Annual reports state that at the end of 1962 enrolments of indigenous children in Administration primary schools had increased over ten years by 30 000, but the Minister was not satisfied with the pace. He avoided an 'elite' group by investing in a broad-base of primary schools before strengthening secondary. He saw a country literate in the same language, and being an international language, that being English. The people would then handle future political affairs more intelligently. Yet importing teachers on contract with their families from Australia was costly. In 1955 he wrote in a Ministerial Statement on Secondary Education that the

> (Australian scholarship scheme is) ... means of producing as quickly as possible a nucleus of better educated natives to return to the Territory and take part in building up the educational and other services for their own people. (Porter 1993:116)

Groups of these secondary scholarship students, returned from Queensland to be the first indigenous secondary teachers. They were prepared at Port Moresby Teachers College

(PMTC) in the mid-1960s. Despite Mr Grove's policy of students being required to return to their villages annually for vacations in order to stay in touch with their own culture, they found it difficult to re-adjust to basic facilities and family demands even while still at PMTC.

As early as 1956, the Minister was looking out for 'awakening interest' in local PNG politics which he saw as closely tied to social, economic and educational advancement. Within Australian politics the Opposition was generally satisfied. In 1959 a Labour spokesman is quoted as saying, "... it is one of the miracles of modern politics that ... we have a man with such humanitarian outlook and tendencies in charge ... of our Territories" (Porter 1993:159). There was a bi-partisanship for the intentions in Papua New Guinea and some joint resentment about the regular visits and reports of the Trusteeship Council to the United Nations. By the early 1960s however the Opposition too began criticism about the speed of progress and Mr Hasluck's response was:

> Any declaration of policy will be vanity if it is made in the form of a plain and unqualified assertion. Part of the paradox of the situation is that the only statement of policy that is realistic is one that is in general terms. (Porter 1993:117)

Put succinctly, Minister Hasluck's every effort for Papua New Guinea demonstrated urgency, but striving for both haste and perfection often made him impatient with Australian public servants in the field. Besides the many features of development for which he concurrently campaigned, he had faith that the indigenous people could handle the changes and they were ennobled by his advocacy but he had few friends and a lot of people in-country saw him going too fast for the capability of people and institutions. He insisted that schooling for indigenous children was a priority and persisted with expansion, relevant curricula and later, higher levels. Finally, he increased the flow of finances, removed from the legal code elements of racial discrimination and handed over the ministerial role at the end of 1963 not without his critics but leaving many forward-looking structures and policies onto which the following years unfolded.

Meanwhile, Christian missions independently pursued their own policies and educational tasks. Patient concurrent work that spanned the leadership years of Directors Groves, Roscoe and Johnson (1946-1967) should not be lost sight of while concentrating here on Administration leadership and work.

Mr Charles E Barnes replaced Mr Hasluck as Minister of Territories at the end of 1964.

Mr Barnes emphasised local economic development and his leadership was said by his critics to be 'ultra-conservative'. Unable to quickly understand the 'aspirations of the people', he did however provide the funding until 1972 which supported accelerated educational activity in a pre-independence era (Clifton-Bassett 1999:40).

The Third Director, Mr L Johnson 1962-1967

In his farewell address as Director, Mr Les Johnson stated he was a pragmatist who got caught up in the tide of Territory events. He had come from a teaching and administrative role at the Claremont Teachers' College in Western Australia to be Deputy Director of Education and replaced Mr Roscoe when he departed in 1962. Mr Johnson handed over the directorship to Mr K McKinnon in 1967 and after two years as the Assistant Administrator returned in July 1970 to become the last Administrator of the Territories of Papua-New Guinea before Independence. His personal educational review at an Australian College of Education (ACE) meeting in Port Moresby gave insight to the society in which teacher education policies grew (Johnson 1970).

Mr Johnson said that he had spent too much time trying to solve immediate administration problems rather than looking for a long term philosophy of education onto which to build the system. He saw that the 1960s 'was a decade in which there were strong and increasing readiness of influential people to agree to larger educational spending' and the Territory as a whole, was interested in the 'product of education'. Mr Johnson acknowledged the existence of a 'substantial primary school base' for which he thought the two previous Directors (Groves and Roscoe) should receive more credit. He acknowledged a group of young university trained innovators brought into headquarters (he named as McKinnon, McNamara, Gibson, Lee). He said that they influenced him and at the same time they were often in conflict with pioneers who did the 'hard drafting job of getting schools built, persuading parents to send their children to school regularly, getting some sort of desks hacked out of the bush and getting schools to operate' (1960:3).

Progress was identified by Director Johnson as over 60 secondary schools operating in a needs focused secondary education system, e.g., Papua New Guinean syllabuses, examinations formulated locally and the true 'indigenisation' of the Teaching Service. Earlier indigenes were seen as 'auxiliaries to the education service' by the Public Service Commission. Some of the problems this retiring Director listed were:

1. The quality of primary and secondary education and the quality of teacher training were concerns, but 'the most significant gap in the early part of the 1960s would be poor quality primary education'. He explained those children were taught by mission teachers who themselves had only a sketchy primary schooling and one year of teacher training. He explained it was a problem right through the decade and would 'remain one for a good long while to come yet, to provide teacher trainees with an adequate educational base and keep them in teachers' college for long enough to turn out the sort of products which guaranteed quality primary education'. However he thought the 'product' was better than in 1962 as there was a 'gradual upgrading of entry qualifications, a gradual increase in length of courses ... associated with in-service courses and, increasing opportunities for experience overseas'.

2. There were still more appropriate teaching materials needed. Earlier these were scarce and not suited. Between 1962 and 1966 there was a range of first-rate materials written in the Territory for Papuans and New Guineans. Two series were the Minenda English (Appendix 5.2) and the Tarai Social Studies (Appendix 5.3). The illustrations and photographs associated with these materials were often the first time teachers had pictures of people who looked like their pupils.

3. Papuans and New Guineans needed to realise that it was *their* Education Department and not an Australian one with a few of them tagged on.

4. He had presented, as Director, the University Bill to the House of Assembly against strong local and external pressures who said it was too early. It was only finally accepted in 1965 but the university needed to be seen to be successful.

5. The Missions or Churches were a 'nettle I fail to grasp'. His direct mission communication efforts were few. However he foresaw that 'the Weeden Committee leaves it open for a partnership: planning on a national scale and greater economies and efficiency' and that the conferring of a National Education System would be seen as the greatest event of the 1960s and early 1970s.

For the future, Mr Johnson saw as a priority, 'some sort of body to integrate the tertiary education activities ... a closer association with the university ...' He concluded that the 1960s had been a period of social revolution in the way that Australians looked at

themselves in relation to individual Papuans and New Guineans and the way Papuan New Guineans saw themselves and Australians more as neighbours. He reflected on the 'encouraging change' as 'the most striking thing' in the period of his term of office.

However, an inside view of the 'segregation of pupils in schools according to race' is given about this time by Mr R C Ralph, Chief of Division of Primary Education, who served from 1947 to 1967 as an educator in the Territory (Ralph 1968:30-35). While Mr Johnson may have reported an 'encouraging change' of attitudes, the functioning system was labelled by race variegations (in the 1980s the International Schools System absorbed the reduced number of expatriate children but also accepted English-speaking PNG children). This thesis continues to tease out the 'Native' schooling system and teachers for that system as it expanded and extended.

In speaking of the 1960s so enthusiastically, Mr Johnson had included increased finance, secondary schools, indigenising the secondary system and teaching service, production locally of relevant teaching materials and changing social attitudes, but his reservation, about the quality of primary schooling, by implication meant he was critical of (native) primary teacher training applicants. This search for a better quality intake to colleges and relevance within their subsequent training programmes were the basis of fundamental dilemmas that continued to challenge teacher educators for the next three decades.

The Administration Teachers' Colleges

Mr Hasluck had seen it was time for accelerated tertiary efforts and in 1961 set up 'The Committee on the Development of Tertiary Education and Higher Training in the Territory of Papua and New Guinea'. Its recommendations were the new policy agenda and included: a college for training public servants (the Administrative College opened in 1964); a University college to link with an Australian university (the independent University of Papua New Guinea opened in 1966); a 'multi-racial, full-standard teachers' college' (not attempted); higher technical training (Lae Institute of Technology in 1969) and extension of secondary to university entrance level (Meek 1972).

The first government new facilities called a 'college' for teacher training, was in 1960 at Ward's Strip, the war-time air base dotted with scores of aircraft bomb-bays, in the bush and dust on the outskirts of Port Moresby. It began with two staff houses, four

dormitories and four classrooms with plenty of surrounding land. It found dormitory space for the six women UPNG students in 1966. Goroka Police Training Depot, on the original airstrip perched on a hilltop was in 1961 taken over as another government college to which bush material 'lecture' rooms were added. The Madang college was purpose-built in 1963. Malaguna Technical School, Rabaul housed the emergency 'E' Course training of Australians, which was transferred to Ward's Strip in 1967. The Training Centres at Popondetta, Goroka and Dregerhafen closed and government native primary teacher training was henceforth at Port Moresby and Madang colleges, Goroka becoming the secondary college. The government college lecturers produced material that was shared with the Mission centres also gradually consolidating. Attendance lists show some were still in these centres at the first Annual Principals Conference in 1968.

The Australian staff recruited specifically for the three government colleges after 1963 were unaware of the separate Mission initiatives of the past, the importance of the Administration in education was paramount. The speaker at the Graduation for Port Moresby Teachers College students, Mr Don Owner, the Chief of Division, Teacher Training, was reported as saying 'Australians (staff) can not and should not do for you what you can do for yourselves' (*Post Courier*, November 1963) (see Plate 5.1). This reflected the beginnings of a drive towards Independence which was spoken about at every opportunity. The details of the Chronology of teacher training and related aspects of the two decades 1946 to 1967 are shown in Appendix 5.4.

Summary: The Years 1946-1967

Paul Hasluck was Minister for Territories from 1951 to 1963. His influence flowed from the latter half of Grove's term in office (1946 to 1958), throughout Roscoe's (1958 to 1962) and during the beginning of Johnson's (1962 and 1967). Referring to the nominated policy issues, and the data related to the advocacy of the education administrators: Society's attitude change, of accepting that the natives were to be educated out of the position of only being servants of the outsiders, that it was 'safe' to do this and that they could manage modern knowledge, came very gradually. The pace of introducing schooling for natives under Mr Grove's leadership can be in part explained by this and it is noted that in Mr Johnson's educational reflections twenty years later, he highlighted some changes in attitudes and a neighbourliness between indigenous people and Australians.

How administrators and teachers saw the western schooling was influential, e.g., whether acknowledging and linking what was running parallel in the village, extinguishing it or not being aware of it at all but intent on foreign standards. Each approach had followers and a few administrators never changed, so that it was possible for a government teachers' college in the late 1960s to have the Australian staff frowned upon by their own senior officers for appreciating their student-teachers or indigenous colleagues as equal people.

The curriculum in schools included efforts to follow sketchy drafts of syllabuses, but the foremost concern was the medium of instruction and the place of English or the place of a vernacular. Mr Grove's own linguistic scholarship and blending philosophy made him very flexible and although inclined towards vernaculars praised all genuine field educative efforts. With Mr Hasluck's insistence on English and this being pursued by Mr Roscoe into secondary and tertiary opportunities, by Mr Johnson's time use of English was seen as a means to gaining a place in the world community.

The Native Education Systems in the first twenty years were different to the Mission Education Systems. Major differences were the time spent in teaching religion, religious ceremonies, working in subsistence food gardens and the use of vernacular and not English as the medium of instruction. The various teacher guides and student text book series, Mr Johnson spoke of in 1967, were being written by government teachers' college staff and were in fact structuring or at least influencing the direction of the concurrent development of a common primary school syllabus in English, Arithmetic, Social Studies, Health, Ethics and Morals, Science, Physical Education, Art and Craft and Music. However, the keys remained, attitudes of the wider community to indigenous people, academic standards of the teachers' college intake, the length of the course and the formulation of the whole institutional programme over two years.

TEACHER EDUCATION POLICIES 1968-1993: THE ROLE OF THE ANNUAL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE

Introduction

In the previous section it was seen that the first three Australian Directors of Education had clearly different developmental stages to work through which called for different policy emphasis. Mr Groves as the first Director took change gradually and was sensitive to the importance of languages, the indigenous people and the missions and was

somewhat gentle about the administration's role, trying to blend the best of them all in a flexible manner. Mr Roscoe had continuity of service in his favour and worked towards universal primary education by providing schools and numerous field officers and increased the teacher training focus. Mr Johnson was a mature diplomat who with major Australian finance was able to build onto a large basis of primary schools, albeit at a range of standards, and forge ahead with secondary and tertiary levels. His legacy was locally produced relevant teaching materials and a team of very capable departmental headquarters officers, one of whom, Dr Ken McKinnon, became the last expatriate to hold the position and was the Director as this next stage began.

In 1967 the Administration colleges were at Madang and Ward Strip, Port Moresby. These colleges were being used for preparation of teachers for native primary education (by then called 'primary T' schools, meaning following the Territory syllabus as different to 'primary A' schools for overseas children which followed an Australian state syllabus). Fourteen officers-in-charge of small mission centres joined the three government officers in 1968 for the first such conference of teacher educators in the Territory of Papua and New Guinea. This meeting began an alliance of colleges and headquarters which in the absence of another unifying body nourished and sustained the teacher education evolution. For this section, reports of the annual conferences over 25 years were analysed. The validity of the data in the Annual Principals' Conference (APC) reports is important because they were a major source of actual detail for this whole study.

The Validity of Data in APC Reports from 1968 to 1993

Each report was officially compiled by the person nominated as the Executive Officer (EO). The EO for the initial years (1968-1974) were senior professional officers from the Teacher Education Division of the Department of Education (DOE). From 1976 onwards the principals of colleges themselves selected one another to be the EO and offers were made by principals for their college to host the conference (Table 5.2). The person selected then liaised with fellow principals and the divisional co-ordinators, usually the superintendents of operations and curriculum, prior to, during and after the meeting.

Material collated was that generated during the conference as records of lead papers, discussions and resolutions or as attachments of official documents, presentations from

TABLE 5.2

ANNUAL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCES: 1968-1993 VENUES AND EXECUTIVE OFFICERS

Year	Venue	Executive Officer & College
1968	Goroka Teachers College	Headquarters Officer
1969	Balob Teachers College Lae	Headquarters Officer
1970	Port Moresby Teachers College	Headquarters Officer
1971	Record is the resolutions in 1972 minutes	
1972	Minogere Hostel, Goroka	HQ & Mr P Thodey (Goroka)
1973	Madang Teachers College	HQ (Inservice) & Fr T Woods
1974	Rouna Hotel, Sogeri	HQ (Preservice Officer)
1975	Independence activities and no conference was held	
1976	Port Moresby Teachers College	Miss R Kekedo (PMTC)
1977	Balob Teachers College Lae	Mr W Penias (Madang)
1978	Kaindi Teachers College Wewak	Mr W Maina (Gaulim)
1979	Gazelle Colleges Rabaul	Sr MM Maladede (Kabaleo)
1980	Holy Trinity Mount Hagen	Mrs S Seko (Madang)
1981	Madang Teachers College	Bro J Stephenson (Kaindi)
1982	Port Moresby Teachers College	Mr C Lukose (Gaulim)
1983	Balob Teachers College	Rev B Moser (Dauli)
1984	Dauli Teachers College	Bro E Becker (Holy Trinity)
1985	National Sports Institute Goroka	Bro J Stephenson (Kaindi)
1986	Kulau Lodge Hotel Rabaul	Bro D Beatson (Vunakanau)
1987	International Lodge Lae	Dr W Aukee (Balob)
1988	Madang Resort Hotel	Mr D Austin (Madang)
1989	Holy Trinity Mount Hagen	Bro P Gilfedder (Holy Trinity)
1990	Port Moresby Inservice College	Bro P Harney (Kaindi)
1991	Port Moresby Inservice College	Sr T McNamara (Kabaleo)
1992	Port Moresby Inservice College	Mr K Towandong (Balob)
1993	Loloata Island	Rev Sam Loa (Gaulim)
1994	Official record unavailable	
1995	Official record unavailable	
1996	National Library Waigani and PMIC	Mr J Waka (Holy Trinity)

guests or speeches. Members of the conference were scheduled as scribes for sessions. Notes were written up each night and recommendations debated and refined before voting. Exact details of data, personnel and minutes were collected by the EO whose intention was to act as an efficient repository, editor and publisher of the report with clerical aid at his own college. Normally, the recommendations were separately distributed to addressees through the Secretary for Education, for anticipated prompt attention. The full report was bound and tabled the following year as a record of the previous meeting, where on rare occasions minor corrections were made by members. For this analysis there was a set of resolutions for all years, except 1975, when there was no meeting due

to the funds being used for Independence celebrations. The formal report was available for all other years with the exception of 1971 and 1993.

The documents display efforts made by the EO to produce the best report possible given the facilities of the time. In 1968 it consisted of 140 coarse foolscap pages typed with a manual typewriter on wax stencils and giving a full record of discussions. Over the years there were some variations and a move to quarto paper duplicated on both sides from 1981. In 1972 there was one chairman for the whole meeting and he compiled all the minutes forwarded to him by principals acting as scribes. In 1973 the newly appointed head of inservice section at headquarters, Reverend T Woods, who had been a principal the previous year, expanded on the report to include all possible support papers and a thorough index making it the first *definitive current teacher education policy reference.* In 1979 group photographs began to be included and appeared in 1983, 1984, 1987, 1988; during the 1980s there was a card cover regularly used that showed the emblems of all the college and headquarters in a circle representing unity; in 1983 proceedings were recorded on audio-tape and in 1990 the copy was produced on an off-set print press. In 1993 the EO on transfer to a UPNG position was unable to complete the document for the members of APC 1994 but the resolutions had been written and received by principals.

The Purpose of the Annual Principals' Conference

The venues for the meetings were based over time at each of the teachers colleges upon invitation of a principal. Seven of the 24 meetings were held at the Port Moresby Teacher College. The hosting of the meeting was taken very seriously by the principal, staff and campus families who all assisted with the catering and success of the conference. Accommodation was in shared rooms at a low cost guest house, in the college dormitories or staff homes and on several occasions in modest hotels near a college. The effect was to build trust between principals from different churches and to improve a flow of professional information through constructive discussion in befitting frugality.

While mention is made elsewhere of a teacher training meeting 'in the late 50s', the APC 1968 is recognised as the first in this series. The Director, Dr Ken McKinnon, expressed in the Introduction that when faced with discouragement, the ideal can be inspirational, however,

> '... it is not much practical help unless we are aware of the steps necessary to achieve our ideal, unless our priorities are firmly fixed, and unless we can see our way clear to make

some advance towards this ideal year after year' (APC 1968:2).

There is no clearer statement of the purpose of the conference, although the minutes tell of regular meetings which are channels for communication and joint intentions, until 1980 when the principals themselves in conference drew up detailed guidelines which were two years later in summary accepted by the Secretary:

The Conference is now a recognised professional forum with the following broad functions-

(i) consultation on policies - both current and new
(ii) planning, proposing and developing policies
(iii) administrative and managerial aspects
(iv) professional discussion and exchange of ideas on course development, how they are taught etc
(v) training/inservice sessions for new principals and deputy principals.

(APC 1982:ii)

Policies were not strongly mandated, so these meetings were a high point of the teacher education calendar, and provided the vehicle for encouragement, information exchange and the identification of 'steps', 'priorities' and to 'see our way clear'.

Special Invited Guests and the Titles to Which They Spoke

One role of the principal who was the EO working with the superintendents was to arrange relevant guests and speakers. Looking at the expertise of participant guests and the issues to which they spoke, it can be seen that until 1993 the conference was perceived as gatherings of principals, offering contact with key personnel, innovation and debate, whom prominent guests were keen to meet (see Appendix 5.5 for a record of guest speakers and priority issues 1968-1993). Reading through the list and titles gives a sense of the progression of events and a view of varied involved contributors.

The Director (after 1977 named the Secretary) and other Headquarters senior officers attended and participated for most of the week. The Minister, Professors and teaching staff from the UPNG and the Lae University of Technology; the Teaching Service Commissioner, the Secretary of the Papua New Guinea Teachers Association and provincial officers, were all regular participants. From overseas, noted were Professor J Lewis from the Institute of Education, London (1968), Professor Jackson, from University of Hawaii (1981) and Professor Kasim Bachus from University of Alberta (1983). Also representatives of UNESCO (1969, 1973); World Bank (1982, 1987); Australian Aid (1985, 1990). Their papers and the discussions which followed were valuable professional development for principals and (from 1983) for indigenous deputy principals

being prepared to localise the principals' functions. Policies were often developed by draft papers firstly tabled at the APC for input. Principals contributed agenda items or material, resulting in meaningful involvement.

Professor John Lewis' confidential primary curricular report to Canberra (1968), included a teacher education recommendation: an annual meeting, pressure on mission colleges to improve, upgrading of college staff qualifications, and head office professional staff working with lecturers jointly creating teaching materials. This located the Lewis Report as a major influence on subsequent teacher education policies and practice (Lewis 1968). Selections of significant policies from the APC reports are in Appendix 5.6. They serve to indicate the functional unity and the progression of policies from the 1968 APC until an apparent oversupply of primary teachers offered the opportunity for a three-year programme and research to prepare for its introduction. The 1990 National Education Board (NEB) acceptance and implementation of the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) recommendations led to changed roles in the teacher education system by the mid-1990s.

Distribution of Curriculum and Operations Resolutions

An analysis of the topics for which resolutions were made by the principals in conference over the years 1968 to 1993 shows the emphasis on Operations or Curriculum in different years (see Appendix 5.7). When a major operations change was introduced the emphasis was on work attended to by the Superintendent Operations; when a curriculum related change Superintendent Curriculum (Table 5.3). However, Operations' activities remained the most vital to principals, it included Finance. Divisionally, there was on-going interaction of headquarters staff. Operations was originally more generously structured and staffed, then fully localised by 1980.

In the 1980s, there were many subject workshops which meant Curriculum matters had multiple venues annually for staff to discuss ideas and attend to concerns in a practical way. This may have generated Operations issues for APCs.

TABLE 5.3
DISTRIBUTION OF CURRICULUM AND OPERATIONS RESOLUTIONS
APC 1968 TO 1993

	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Curriculum	15	11	7	0	8	10	10	0	8	10	3	8	7
Operations	9	8	✓ 13	0	✓ 11	7	6	0	6	10	1	7	✓ 9

	1981	1982	1982	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
Curriculum	7	8	4	7	4	7	5	4	9	8	2	4	9
Operations	✓ 9	✓ 6	✓ 5	✓ 9	✓ 9	✓ 17	✓ 10	✓ 12	✓ 12	✓ 12	✓ 3	✓ 6	2

Key: A tick '✓' denotes the years Operations had more Resolutions. In nine of the years Curricular issues were of more concern.

A Review of Principals' Recurring Concerns: The Important Issues

A content analysis of the Annual Principals' Conference (APC) Resolutions over 25 years showed **staffing, finance, the demonstration school, localisation, college libraries, a three year programme and an Association or Institute of teacher education** to be the most common. These each ranged over 16 to eight resolutions and some had multiple parts. **Staffing**, was raised most often. It was under such concerns as overseas officers: volunteers availability, conditions, housing, security, performance reports, school experience, ceilings, staff to student ratio and allowances; and ancillary staff: conditions of employment.

Finance was raised regularly asking headquarters officers for an increased allocation or funds for a specific new activity which later required project writing for overseas aid. The APC reports do not give many details of actual financial allocations or confidential separate college situations. The Superintendent Operations gave annual summary statements but liaised individually with principals and worked in line responsibility to senior staff within the Department of Education and they in turn with the Department of Finance. There were tight formulas and colleges were calculated as a 'school', a national institution like a 'national high school' or a 'technical boarding institution'. The Office of Higher Education (OHE) only became involved more closely with funded projects in the 1990s but regularly interacted on student scholarship details. Overseas aid donors summarised global dollars but the supporting church agencies did not disclose their college financial input.

Localisation has a separate section in Chapter Six, which included aspects of local staff preparation brought forward by principals. A **three year programme** was integral to the data in Chapter Seven and the question of **an Association and an Institute** are included under the latter section of this chapter, 1994 to 1996.

The other two topics for which resolutions appeared often in the APC reports were **demonstration schools** and **college libraries.** A closer investigation of each of these two topics is made to also give readers some real PNG insight about areas contributing to college programmes and seen to be important by principals and the government. The tensions of both policy and practice reveal typical developing country difficulties.

In the 1968 inaugural meeting of principals, **the demonstration school** was not on the agenda but the report quoted a 'selection' from the African experience (Farrant 1964). Built of split bamboo, usually with open half walls, an iron roof and tanks, most colleges had managed to have their demonstration school situated on campus. Others were a walk down a track from the college. Farrant suggested that in some countries opinion had moved from the idea of a 'special school with a close relationship' but he was in favour of them while there were '... many schools below desirable standards ... and sparse distribution of rural schools' (APC 1968:111). Farrant's criteria were appropriate in Papua-New Guinea and his further advice remained relevant in the 1990s, including that what makes it 'special' was it must be staffed with the 'best available' teachers, so that student-teachers 'see good teachers in action' in the classroom and school. For the ten years prior to this date, from 1958 to 1968, small mission and government training centres had been arranging demonstration lessons according to the local school and teacher resources (see Plate 5.2). European teachers or lecturers teaching the primary village school classes firstly, with groups of students gathered around, then later indigenous class teachers or lecturers. Each lesson was written out in steps fully, duplicated and distributed to the student-teachers to assist with understanding of a teaching/learning process and to aid follow-up discussion. College staff were responsible to ensure that what was happening in the demonstration school was a useful and up-to-date model for student-teachers to observe.

Principals through to 1993 gave insight to the PNG demonstration school. Highly significant here, is that they were understood by indigenous senior officers to be essential tools and were one of the very few allowances funded by government which survived

cost-cutting. There were regular APC discussions and at least 15 recommendations (see Appendix 5.7). However, the layers of legal and personal interests caused tensions in the implementation of demonstration school policies. National and provincial responsibilities, government and church agencies and the Teaching Service employment regulations, frustrated and prolonged the patient indigenous consensus seeking. This resource was understood, funded but not delivering the best practice. It was one of the most persistent unresolved tensions principals and head office staff debated with provinces and was linked to ownership of roles. While there are lengthy records (see Appendix 5.8), the following is a sample of the tensions operating in the PNG provincial 'grass-roots' scene.

Two motions (Resolutions 72/7 and 72/8) related to the difficulty of getting and retaining 'good teachers' in the demonstration schools. If teachers were rated highly then they applied for promotion elsewhere. If they gained tenure in the demonstration school by normal means, they may not be good enough, or they may not remain motivated to sustain the best work. Principals did not want teachers straight out of colleges, yet they did not like teachers qualified with an entrance to teacher education of only Form 2 (Standard 8) working with young Form 4 student-teachers.

Two other aspects became clear (Resolutions 74/3 and 76/11), one was that district (later provincial) education officers needed to communicate with principals and secondly demonstration allowances were not for 'lessons' but for teachers who contributed with 'superior teaching techniques' and it was up to the colleges to use these abilities, according to the college requirements. The principals wanted a whole staff of good teachers. Provincial primary inspectors and provincial administrative officers were localised (indigenous), on the other hand many of the principals were expatriate. Indigenous senior staff from the college were given responsibility for liaison with the demonstration school, and then the provincial office supposedly to improve communications. Provincial officers liked to be independent of national level instructions. Colleges were national institutions and demonstration schools by 1977 were provincial responsibilities. Provincial and national policies overlapped and frequently changing key staff in the provincial offices upset principals.

By 1981 professional studies departments in colleges were innovative with video-camera and video-tapes of good teaching. They were making less use of the demonstration school. Also, they were wanting to observe the children and teach individuals or smaller

groups during the allocated demonstration time. A more flexible approach was wanted from the headmaster and the teachers. This confused some demonstration teachers, who consequently were not asked by colleges to give demonstration lessons. Occasional conflict between the college and its campus school, about allowances, arose although paid by TED, NDOE (Resolution 81/17).

The First Assistant Secretary for Education, Mr B Peril, attended the APC, in response to reports of difficulties with provincial demonstration schools. He stated written directives were not a good idea and a 'lot depends on the relationships' which can be built up and by having provincial officers on the college committees. Mr Peril thought this may assist negotiations. It was 'agreed in principle' (Resolution 81/17) that staff may share allowances, but there were 'difficulties involved in reaching an industrial agreement between parties concerned on this matter'. It also meant the 'number of lessons taught' became the measure, just at a time when colleges wanted flexibility. The Secretary, Mr G Roakeina, agreed 'good teachers are required' and suggested where there is an 'unco-operative Provincial Education Board (PEB) it can be taken higher' but 'the problem should be identified clearly first' (APC 1985). He suggested the issue should be put on the agenda of the 1986 Provincial Education Ministers Conference. While the Teacher Education Division's Secretary's Instruction required and funded demonstration schools, the national senior officers themselves (Peril and Roakeina) repeatedly saw it was a 'local provincial *negotiations*' implementation problem. The principals asked for 'invited consultancy' status on provincial education boards (Resolution 84/04).

An experienced field officer, Mr Lalavaina, was appointed to head office to travel to each college and demonstration school several times a year and attempt to get on the inside of difficult situations that arose and assist (negotiations). He presented findings including that where 'mission agency colleges work through their agency education secretary' and he approached provincial staff 'results are good'. Colleges concluded that 'each college uses their demonstration school in their own particular ways' and that 'demonstration teachers should be encouraged to have more interaction with the college community' (APC 1988:20). The next year Lalavaina tried to re-build one demonstration school which had been burnt down by rascals, but by APC 1992 he had resigned. The principals concluded:

> That given the involvement of teachers colleges in demonstration schools and the importance of providing good models to student-teachers, there should be a sub-committee consisting of the college head of professional studies, the headmaster of the school and agency representative to consider in the first instance all applications for tenure appointments and also

> for consequential vacancies that arise during the year. Subsequently to make recommendations for such appointments to the provincial appointing authority. Resolution 92/5

Continuing to look at what principals identified at Annual Principals' Conferences as most important, the final topic for closer investigation here was **college libraries.** Libraries were typically still minimal collections and buildings. At the first APC it was stated that it was 'critical ... to raise standards of ... libraries and the extent to which they are used by students ... . Before this can happen, it is essential there be a full-time librarian in each college irrespective of the size of the student body' (APC 1968:13).

A system operated whereby the mission colleges were encouraged to improve their standards via what was called grants-in-aid from government. Principals absolved librarians from being teachers, and acknowledged their specialist qualifications and importance on staffs (Resolution 68/29). The 1968 conference report also included a comprehensive paper titled, 'College Libraries: Recommended Standards of Library Provision'. *The Library Association 1965 (APC 1968:129-130).* The fact that this document advised colleges, when other development was only beginning, was supported by correspondence from an early Port Moresby public librarian (1948-1965):

> The library organisation came under the Education Department for the first few years (under Bill Groves). Later we were moved to Civil Affairs, with all the oddments, so were listed at the tail end of their responsibilities, in alphabetical order as penal institutions, prostitution, public libraries, and so were largely overlooked by the Admin, particularly as to funding. Later we were in Information and Extension Services Division (Carter 1996:2).

In the APC 1972 report a Librarians Workshop had written a submission to the Teacher Education Committee in which the principals stated 'library resources adequate for the facilitation of instruction' were necessary. In 1981 the situation sounded encouraging.

> Libraries in colleges have been improved. This is through enlarged buildings, more careful and informed selections of books, creation of national objectives for library studies courses (plus the fact that it is recognised as a study subject) and the addition of a lecturer/librarian EO4 level position, enabling specialised assistance to staff and students. The principals' conference reconfirms that this position is valuable, indeed a basic need and resource (Resolution 81/7).

The discussion within the report however revealed a certain amount of disquiet and some significant attitudes and implications were raised by the principals. These were listed and are summarised as follows (APC 1981:33).

> Some principals would rather a full staff of 'ordinary' prepared lecturers, plus a library assistant or a librarian in ancillary level, than the librarian included in the lecturer numbers.

A lecturer/librarian teaches 'only' library studies as well as 'looking after the library'.

From 1981 a lecturer librarian was a Teaching Service position and must be advertised as such.

Some principals saw this as 'losing' a lecturer position rather than gaining improved status for librarians.

Librarians could be given restricted registration as a teacher or nationals could meet conditions for lecturer status via an associate scheme and if they were a qualified librarian.

Some principals prefer to be given the choice as to whether or not to advertise a lecturer/librarian position.

The original intention was for the librarian to be taken off the ancillary lists, with only minimal salary and be upgraded by being in the mainstream in an 'additional' position on the academic Teaching Service staffing establishment and paid accordingly.

Headquarters failed to get this 'additional' position funded by the Finance Department over many years although agreed to in principle by senior officers. Some church agency colleges had expatriate volunteers as librarians who qualified for ancillary funding but did not qualify for teaching staff. The long-term plan was for indigenous staff who were qualified teachers and/or librarians and upgrading was available through associateships.

In 1982, the PNG National Librarian obtained for teacher education the support of an overseas aid donor and the services of Professor Miles Jackson from the University of Hawaii. He visited each college, surveyed and reported on each college library and book collection, wrote a comprehensive final report and attended the APC as a guest and speaker generating interest and plans of further action (Resolutions 81/22, 81/23 and 81/25). One basic idea rejuvenated was the setting up of a model school library within the colleges. Ideas for easily made bush material shelves and low log seats, grass mats and simple labelling of book sections and reading levels. A model housed in the National Library, Port Moresby was transferred to the Port Moresby Teachers' Inservice College library.

The Curriculum Unit in the same General Education Services Wing, of NDOE as TED (curriculum unit, inspections and teacher education) was accustomed to planning production and distribution lists in advance. Colleges needed curriculum materials used in schools but there was no way of republishing Curriculum Unit materials. Colleges had been advised to put what they did receive into the college libraries, not the teaching departments as they disappeared during practice teaching periods. The seeming hopelessness of getting funding and useful books to colleges was reflected in the

demanding tone in the wording of the next motion at APC 1990.

> The APC requests that the ATE, in collaboration with the CHE, submit a project for upgrading resources in libraries and to develop computer link-ups amongst all colleges and university libraries in PNG. This upgrading must start in 1991 and is essential to the implementation of the Three Year Diploma Programme. Resolution 90/17

Policies that evolved for teachers' college libraries between 1968 and 1993 had early agreement and continued to be forward looking, but at implementation level they were repeatedly thwarted (there was regular concern see Appendix 5.9). Librarian services were inconsistent and collections were insufficient.

Student Representatives: Their Perceptions of Practice and Policy

In the thesis so far, some aspects of policy and implementation have been considered from a principals' perspective. It is possible to see from another perspective, and that is through the eyes of the students in conference between 1968 and 1993. What evolving teacher education policies did they highlight as concerns and what was changing for them?

Firstly to give some background to the student intake. Up to the 1950s the age of teacher trainees was not a criterion for acceptance. Most were older candidates and often were able to take a spouse to the small training centre. Their primary schooling or entrance level was a flexible consideration. In the early years of the Lutheran mission teacher training centres for example, the congregation and the missionaries selected the candidates according to their character, their ability to represent a geographic mission circuit, their progress in religious knowledge and practice, and other basic (school) subjects. The idea was a person from an area would train and then return, "to help my own people" (McNamara 1974:175).

By 1960 the first co-educational boarding college was set up by the administration at Dregerhafen. Numbering 140 students from both Papua and New Guinea, and 30 of them women. A student profile included: aged between 17 and 37 years of age, mostly men in their twenties, the majority would have completed six years of village primary and two years of post-primary schooling (interview F D Edwards 1990).

In the 1970s there was a growing concern that many students were too young, sometimes arriving at colleges under the age of fifteen and being transported home. The Ministerial

Curriculum Policy in 1977 stated a student must at least turn 17 years in the first year at college, and with more rigid academic requirements the profile of the student body gradually became more similar across administration and church colleges (see Plate 5.3). Some of these students proved too immature to handle the challenges of the field in their first years of teaching. In 1989 the McNamara Report recommended the diploma intake in 1991 be at Grade 12 and was meant to attract a more mature and qualified entrant. This policy was accepted but it was to take some years to gain feasibility.

Prior to 1968 there was a Student Representative Council (SRC) in administration colleges. When principals met in 1968, and their conference became an annual event, student presidents then travelled with the principals and met in an adjoining room with shared meals. In 1976 and 1977 under the influence of the Australian National Union of Students (NUS), active at UPNG, the SRC presidents made independent arrangements. By 1978 they were again meeting alongside the principals but then decided to make their own rotation of colleges. There are records of SRC presidents of colleges attending what they called Community Teachers' Colleges Student Association (CTCSA) meetings nationally in the following years - 1970, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1982, 1983, 1986, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991. There is also evidence (see APC 1978) that they met in 1976 and 1977 although there were no minutes available of those meetings.

On some occasions presidents saw themselves as representing student opinion antagonistic to the principal, college administration or agency. This could cause tension in remote colleges. At a later stage there was normally a woman student vice-president in the co-educational colleges. In 1970 at Madang government college, a Manus islander was voted president. She later became Mrs Naho Rooney, the Justice Minister in government and a long serving politician, an academic, business woman, leader of PNG women and was jailed for her political convictions (Dorney 1990:63-64). There were well known public figures who began their leadership as presidents of colleges (Mali Voi, Idau Tau). An outstanding example was Sir Ebia Olewale who as SRC President at PMTC, lead the first combined tertiary protest march to an Ela Beach meeting to demonstrate regarding salary differentials and independence from Australia (Kiki 1968; Dorney 1993).

Presidents and students were eager for comparisons with other colleges feeling isolated and were a target for local politicians and foreign visitors. They appeared to have done well helping make the best of the college environs and assisting improve staff and college

agency attitudes towards students within the college.

The policies which are shown in the data to be important to students in all the community school (primary) colleges are numbered one to 14. Most are related to Office of Higher Education (OHE) scholarships, Teaching Service Commission (TSC) employment regulations or internal college policies. These will be discussed briefly below:

1. Student exchange and visits between colleges. A Lutheran college in Queensland arranged an annual exchange of students with Balob, Lae for a term. It was possible between Dauli at Tari and Holy Trinity at Mount Hagen and between Madang and Balob at Lae when the road was completed.

2. Married student accommodation. There was at Dauli, Tari additional houses. No other colleges had plentiful accommodation. As students became younger fewer were married before they gained a study scholarship from OHE.

TABLE 5.4: STUDENT PRESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF COLLEGE POLICIES

The records of the Community Teachers' Colleges Student Association (CTCSA) meetings between 1970 and 1990 indicate there were 14 issues or policies that arose two or more times and these are listed as an indicator of on-going features specific to a student view.

	Policies	Year of CTCSA Conference
1.	Student exchange and visits between colleges	1970, 1974, 1986
2.	Married student accommodation	1972, 1974
3.*	Patrol box purchase and transportation from college to the first posting.	1978, 1979, 1989, 1990
4.*	Books for the college libraries	1983, 1988, 1990
5.	Reserve positions for new primary teachers	1983, 1987, 1988
6.	Build more village community schools	1988, 1989
7.	Advertising the positions available for new graduates	1988, 1990
8.	National scholarship conditions	1988, 1990
9.	Book allowance increase	1979, 1989, 1990
10.	Security considerations while on land travel	1988, 1989
11.*	Basic skills national examinations	1988, 1989
12.	Request for banks to again open on Saturday mornings	1978, 1986, 1990
13.*	Uniformity in college standards	1978, 1986, 1988, 1989
14.*	Three-year training programme	1978, 1983, 1988

* NDOE responsibility

3.* Patrol boxes; These were strong, lockable metal boxes which protected the contents

from the tropical weather. They were carried on a long pole by two carriers when patrol officers journeyed on foot and thus became part of 'government stores issue'. Student teachers in the 1950s and 1960s were issued with food rations, a laplap and a patrol box (Groves 1954). The latter became one of their very few possessions. When the policy to no longer issue boxes free began the students revealed they had understood it was part of being a teacher. There were college schemes for students to earn cash to buy a patrol box by graduation and vocational schools earned funds, manufacturing them. Departures by air meant it was impossible for the heavy patrol box to travel with the graduate. Often the box did not arrive at the same place as the new teacher who felt greatly disadvantaged without it.

4.* Books for college libraries: The Superintendent Operations, Teacher Education Division, National Department of Education regularly divided equally, excess money at the close of the financial year and shared it between college libraries to buy relevant books. Students themselves began to recognise the shortfall and demand improved libraries and full-time qualified librarians.

5. Reserve positions for new teacher graduates. As students became younger, postings socially difficult and school parents not likely to care for a teacher, the TSC requested provincial departments of education to retain less remote positions for new graduates. More professional 'initiation' was advocated (see Plate 5.4 (a) and (b)).

6. Build more community schools. In the mid-1980s the colleges were said to be over-producing teachers, but student-teachers who came from distant villages knew areas that did not yet have schools. Provincial education funding was being used not for expansion and postings but for repairing and consolidating existing schools.

7. Advertised positions available for new graduates. The policy was that with their college diploma, students gained a 'provisional registration' certificate signed by the Secretary for Education. After the first year of teaching and a satisfactory inspection report they received 'full registration' as a teacher in PNG and could then apply for an advertised vacancy, but students wanted to apply from college.

8. National scholarship (Natschol) conditions. The Office of Higher Education awarded 'natschols' to school pupils who gained a position in one of the tertiary education

institutions. Without income earning families, financial assistance was needed. They resented the gap between university and teachers' college students awards.

9. Office of Higher Education (OHE) book allowance. Professional demands on student-teachers were ahead of the retail costs of books and stationery. They repeatedly wrote case studies to show the reality of their poverty.

10. Security considerations in land travel. Travel from the airfields to the village was seen as a security risk. Individual or small groups of students wanted OHE policy changed to fund transport in advance to enable all students to arrive home safely.

11.* Basic skills English and Mathematics national examinations. While students were accepted into a teachers college as a result of a Grade 10 score, they were then required to pass a primary school Grade 6 examination in English and Mathematics. This NEB 'standards' policy caused 'shame' for students who failed.

12. Requests for banks to open on Saturdays. When Saturday banking was withdrawn, teachers had to go long distances to get cash. Problems arose when children or teachers walked cross-country carrying money, and thieves targeted vehicles.

13.* Uniformity in college standards. Student-teachers were letter writers and compared college life with friends in different teachers colleges. Students welcomed the National Objectives for courses in 1979 because they thought it meant all colleges would be 'equivalent'.

14.* Three-year training programme. Students wanted a longer programme. Students liked the idea of having less pressure, more time to complete assignments, as well as improved status, however waiting one more year to earn a salary caused reservations.

In conclusion, it appears from the data, students in the earlier years revealed a tendency for interest in student and college conditions but throughout, there had been more concern about professional preparation and field teaching matters. Teaching as a job was seen by student-teachers to be helping their country.

Summary of Policies and Issues: APC 1968 to 1993

The APC reports are used throughout this thesis as reliable and valid references. They provide opinions of principals and those closest to the reality of implementation. Appendix 5.6 gives selected policy highlights and a summary follows:

1968 to 1976: Policies related to: consolidation of resources in bigger colleges, emphasis on 'education' rather than 'training' of pre-service teachers, creation of a unified Teaching Service, Ministerial Policy No 2 requiring student 'self reliance', beginnings of Australian aid for formal college lecturer preparation, policy of accelerated localisation, government funding for all 'boarding schools' which included both government and church teachers' colleges, political Independence declared in 1975 and the establishment of an Higher Education Scholarships Branch.

1977 to 1989: Policies related to: Ministerial Policy No 22 gazetted giving comprehensive guidelines for all aspects of curriculum in colleges, provincial government strengthened through the Organic Law, 'primary school' renamed 'community school', PMTC became the national Inservice College (PMIC), National Education Board accepted the outcome of 17 college staff and Teacher Education Division curriculum workshops called 'National Objectives for Teacher Education', World Bank loan for indigenous college lecturers' professional development, plus one full-time staff development officer, National Education Board introduced external basic skills examinations in colleges, the National Teacher Education Board of Studies ratified (1986), 'camping allowance' introduced for practice teaching supervisors, college grants for security, BEd (Tertiary) UPNG began for preparing college staff, staff to student ratio 1:15 to be improved over three years to 1:12, policy document Philosophy of Education for PNG (Matane) introduced for gradual implementation and Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) recommendations accepted by NEB.

1990 to 1993: Policies related to: the Higher Education Plan (1990), Certificate discontinued and three-year Diploma commenced 1991, external examinations ceased in 1991, Teacher Education Division (TED) was renamed Staff Development and Training Division (SDTD), ad hoc committee of the NEB Association of Teacher Education (ATE) commenced, school Reform structuring began and Special Education integrated into mainstream with implications for colleges.

TEACHER EDUCATION POLICIES 1994-1996: THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TEACHER EDUCATION (NITE)

Introduction

Principals worked after 1990 with the *ad hoc* committee, the Association of Teacher Education (ATE), which they had anticipated would become the National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) (McNamara 1989). They indicated no hesitation about NITE, although their predecessors had debated such an organisation at length. However, by early 1994 the Institute still had not been created.

The Beginning and the End of the National Institute of Teacher Education

The concept of an Institute of Teacher Education in PNG had been promoted by individuals and analysed by professional committees and the Annual Principals' Conference (APC). It was like a thread of hope leading toward a professional teacher education ideal. As far back as 1964, the 'Commission on Higher Education in Papua New Guinea', the Currie Report, stated that:

> Teacher education was 'the crux of the education problem' (6.13).
>
> A School of Education be established in the university to 'take control of the teachers training colleges' (6.25).
>
> Advantages were seen as university certification 'some University Association' (6.27), upgrading of college staff and coordination of the development of teacher training facilities. The Department of Education would have 'a strong representation in the governance of the School' (6.35) (Currie 1964).

At APC 1968, Dr G Gibson, Chief of Division of Teacher Training, had listed the first of his problems as 'standards'. He said:

> The most effective approach to meeting the problem of quality is to establish standards by organising longer pre-service programmes for higher level applicants. It is hoped to develop a close association between UPNG and the TED. Initially, through cooperation in the development of courses for secondary teacher training (APC 1968:99).

Dr Gibson circulated extracts from recent overseas teacher education documents and concluded that developing a more effective organisation and administration of teacher education had been faced in New Zealand and Canada but that Australia was only just beginning to face them, and because of historical connections with Australia there may be an unfortunate tendency for the Territory to follow Australian patterns. New Zealand he

considered gave more autonomy and independence through national and regional channels and had a National Advisory Council on the Training of Teachers. The Department of Education transferred to the university, the actual process of training teachers, which was a change of professional supervision. Dr Gibson wrote that such an authority (a National Advisory Council) would be hard to establish, organise and finance in the Territory as involved parties would be 'unlikely to see eye-to-eye about the aims and content of teacher education' (Gibson 1969:372). It was seen that UPNG could play an important role especially related to standards and provision of courses to upgrade college staff.

In 1969 the 'Report of the Advisory Committee on Education in Papua New Guinea', the Weeden Report, identified quality of primary teacher training as being one of the most pervasive problems. It recommended reducing the number of colleges, from 15, 'to get the best returns from limited resources of finance and skilled manpower' and it supported the missions' 'voluntary institutions retain their identity' (6.13). The Weeden Report influenced the 1970 PNG Education Ordinance and consequentially, the system. It recommended that:

> A Teacher Education Committee be created to advise the national Territory Education Board about development of college facilities, coordination of colleges, improvement of standards of admission, maintenance and improvement of courses, appointment of staff to colleges (6.20)
>
> Each college have a governing body (6.17) but the Department of Education provide teachers certificate (6.22)
>
> An association of teacher educators be developed which would stimulate 'exchange of professional ideas between parts of the teacher training service ... and research into teacher education in the Territory' (6.13) (Rogers 1979).

In 1971 the 'Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education in Papua New Guinea', the Brown Report recorded that:

> An issue raised frequently was the establishment of some form of School or Institute of Education (4.15) but a University School of Education was not seen as appropriate.
>
> The Government should retain influence over recruitment and supply of teachers and college development. A loose association of teachers colleges with membership from the university was preferred. This association would discuss common problems, reduce duplication (of committees) and advise a statutory advisory Tertiary Education Commission (8.20).

However, an Office of Higher Education to service the Commission for Higher Education was created.

Professor G Trevaskis (UPNG) presented a paper at the APC 1973, with nine sequential stages of implementation for the establishment of a University Institute of Education. The

processes in this paper were very complicated, on the other hand his 'transition plan' was wise (Resolution 73/6). At the APC 1974, Professor D Stannard, Dean of the Faculty of Education (UPNG) presented a paper with the point that '... ideas turned at every stage on the possible involvement of the UPNG Faculty of Education' (in an Association). Stannard listed ways in which the university was already involved with teacher education. He gave examples from Commonwealth countries on what he saw as a continuum from 'control to influence' and he placed his suggestion between the extremes. His idea was for an 'association of teachers' colleges', as a pre-requisite to an Institute.

Brother G Leach, a college principal, was the chairman of a sub-committee of principals asked by the Teacher Education Committee to produce a draft constitution and guidelines for a Stannard's Association of Primary Teachers Colleges, which would lead to an Institute of Education. The committee met in May 1975 and eleven *objections* to an Association were reported as follows:

> Encroachment on the autonomy and individuality of the teachers colleges.
> Over-rigid uniformity.
> Dominance by UPNG.
> Further encroachment by the Ministry of Education.
> Dominance by the Association itself.
> Ineffectiveness of the Association.
> Duplication of the activities of other bodies.
> Insidious growth of power and goal displacement by UPNG.
> Usurping role and authority of college Boards of Studies rather than provision of a service function to them.
> UPNG role implying greater theory orientation rather than practical training.
> Lack of clarity as to whom the Association would be responsible. (Rogers 1979:19).

This committee report did not refer to elements of standards but revealed Mission fears.

The National Education Board (NEB) (1978) recommended that a feasibility study for an Institute of Teacher Education be undertaken. A working committee was set up with Professor Cyril Rogers, UPNG as convener and consultant. In 'The National Education Strategy: PNG Education Plan Review and Proposals', Professor Rogers recommended, in the context of that review, not an Institute but a Teachers' Colleges Association. 'This should be formed to ensure unity of effort among the teachers' colleges' (Rogers 1979:78).

In reaction, Brother J Stephenson, a principal, spoke in favour of the existing degree of internal voluntary cooperation and consultation between colleges and the newly independent status of PNG government. He explained that if busy principals left the control and influence of an Institute in the hands of the university it would mean a

'diminution of current autonomy' and

> ... it would not be rash to suspect that many in the Australian Administration would like themselves to take over all the teachers colleges ... the 1970 Education Ordinance avoided this authoritarian, monolithic approach and recognised the pluralism in PNG society ... church Agency schools, staffed completely by graduates from Government Colleges could rapidly lose their identify (Resolution 79/7 - APC 1979:40-41).

Dr J Farrell, earlier a PNG principal, was hired from Brisbane College of Education in 1985 to identify teacher education research priorities in PNG prior to the introduction of a three-year programme. As part of that undertaking he made the following reference to an Institute:

> ... over the past 20 years, various proposals have been put forward in support of an Institute of Education to set directions and monitor standards in teacher education in Papua New Guinea ... current administrative organisation ... was determined 15 years ago ... what alternative structure would produce better results? The answer to that question should be sought by an outsider ... on the straightforward evidence of educational developments in other countries comparable to PNG ... some kind of Institute of Education (which) has taken a variety of forms to meet diverse needs ... a plan that would be consensually acceptable (Farrell 1985:15).

With the planning by the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) of the new three-year Diploma in 1990, and the continued meeting and monitoring by ATE over the 1991 to 1993 period, concurrently models for a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) were designed, discussed and proposed by the ATE Chairperson. Support was given to ATE by all members of APC, and supposedly their agencies, there was satisfaction about the impending acceptance of a model of NITE by the National Education Board (NEB).

The Minister for Education, A Baing, addressed on the 6 June, 1994 a Memorandum, 'Establishment of a National Co-ordinating Body for Teacher Education' to the Secretary for Education, the Chairperson of the Commission for Higher Education (CHE), and the Chairman of the Teaching Service Commission (TSC). He rejected briefly the considered NEB recommendation to him for a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE). He concluded his correspondence with the claim that: '... a new agency at a time when cooperation between existing agencies is most needed is not appropriate. I cannot, therefore endorse the NEB proposal for an autonomous NITE' (Baing 1994). The response and follow-up were not with the NTEBS (supposedly advising the Minister) nor the NEB from which the recommendation came, yet the concern was 'co-operation'.

Minister Baing asked for prompt action for a new model that would be established within existing legislation, make optimum use of existing institutions and resources, improve

coordination within the teacher education sub-sector and with other sub-sectors of education. A 'Joint Committee on the Establishment of a National Coordinating Body for Teacher Education' was called immediately by CHE (not by the Secretary NDOE) with one senior officer from each group - CHE, UPNG, NDOE, TSC, PNGTA, ATE and they invited as a 'resource person' an Australian, Dr E Brash, an ex-Vice Chancellor of UPNG. He was then an independent visiting Australian-aid Higher Education Project consultant. The outcome was this facsimile on 26 June 1994 addressed directly to the Minister from Dr Gibson, on behalf of an *ad hoc* Joint Committee:

> The proposal would enable the early commencement of an expanded support programme for teacher education and teachers colleges, as well as a channel for advising Government on matters affecting the teacher education sub-sector. This proposes a National Council for Teacher Education (advisory functions to CHE and NDOE) with a National Teacher Education Development Programme (support functions). See diagram.

The new formal links proposed within the National Education System (NES), are shown in Figures 5.2 and 5.3.

FIGURE 5.2
FORMAL LINES OF AUTHORITY IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM: TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY LINES

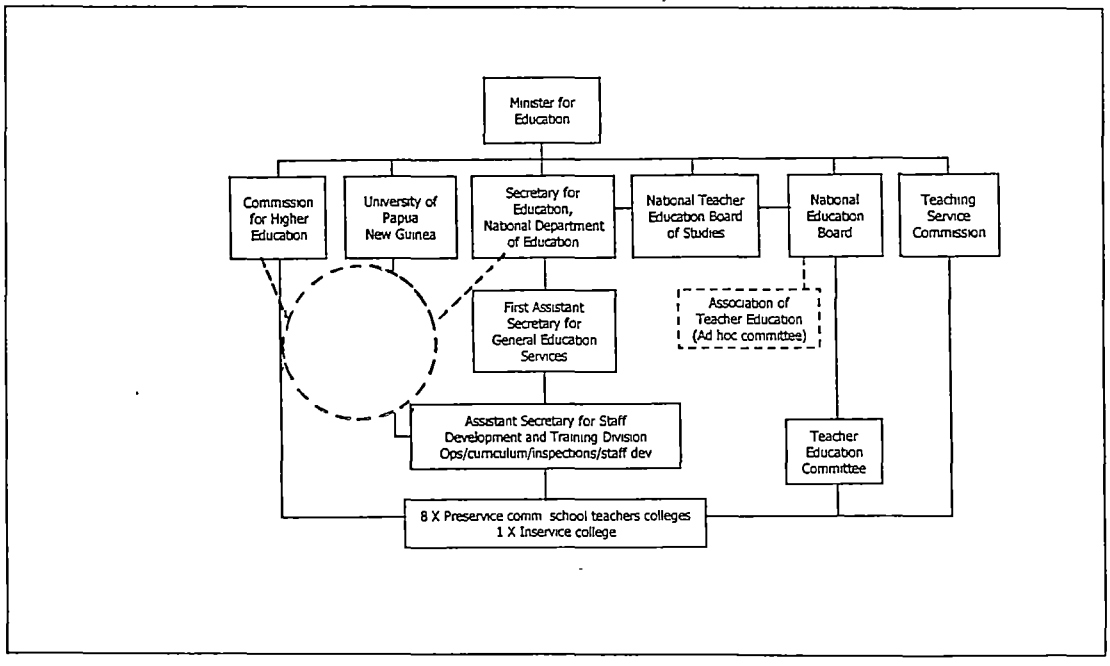
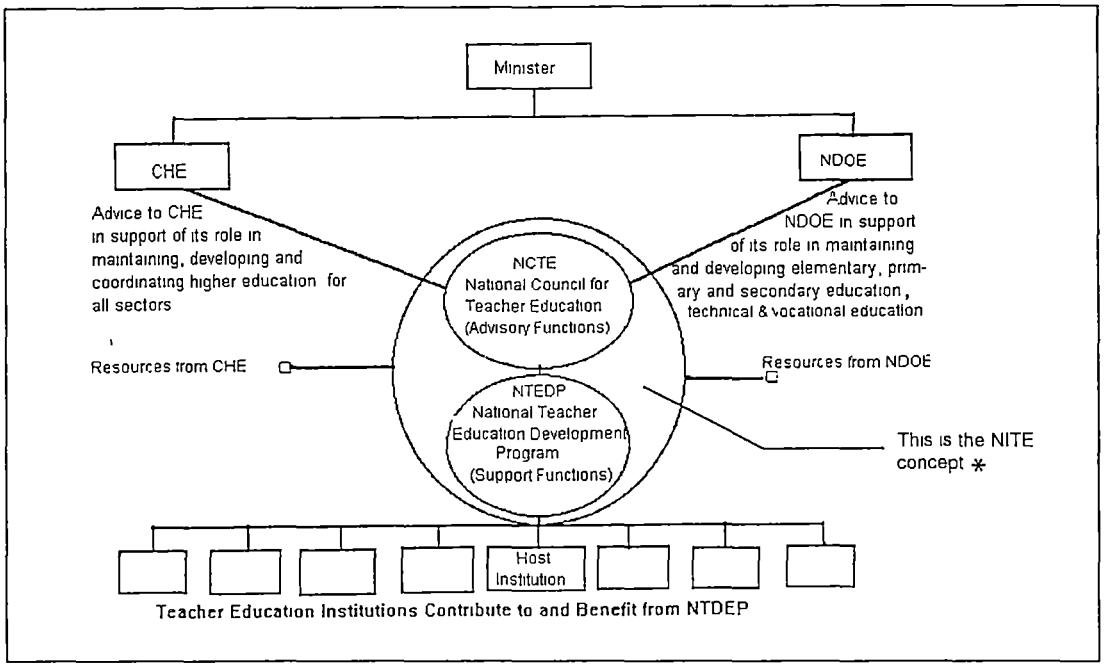


FIGURE 5.3
PROPOSED NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (NCTE)



Facsimile: Chairman ATE G Gibson to Minister for Education A Baing, 26 June 1994

* *The claim that this was NITE concept is queried. A stable 'centre' was envisaged by majority of stakeholders, not two more committees.*

What Happened to Policy and Practice in Teacher Education After the Rejection of the National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE)?

After the Minister for Education rejected the carefully crafted National Education Board (NEB) recommendation for the creation of a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE), an outline was quickly drawn up for a National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) and submitted, by a representative group. That was June 1994 and records revealed there was curtailment of the normal co-ordination of operations and curriculum matters with teachers' colleges within the National Education System (NES).

The Association of Teacher Education (ATE) had already been operating for almost four years as the nucleus for, or precursor to, the anticipated NITE, usurping in various ways the professional roles of the Staff Development and Training Division (SD&TD). The national principals and staff in colleges and the SD&TD officers, of the National Department of Education (NDOE) were in a state of disbelief when the NITE rejection was known. Especially as the suggested alternative was two more committees, not a substantial PNG teacher education resource entity with a reduction of external

bureaucracy. Professor B Avalos the Chairperson of ATE returned to Chile in 1994 and Dr G Gibson from the Pacific Adventist College, who had replaced her as Chairperson, returned to Australia within the next year. Dr Gibson's election raises the question about the ATE relationship with UPNG. Professor Avalos' appointment by the NEB in mid-1990 had been significant with UPNG endorsement implications for NITE and the Diploma. Avalos, in July 1994, speaking at a forum in Brisbane, Australia, referred to, '... opposition to an independent Institute has been strongly voiced by the Commission (CHE) and its power used to influence politicians and bureaucrats into stopping the creation ... replacing it only by a co-ordinating body ...' (1994:47).

The practical issues that arose between mid-1994 and the end of 1996, when this study closes, are briefly pieced together to answer, what happened next? Without Annual Principals' Conference (APC) reports for 1994 and 1995, the report for APC 1996 served as an important means of looking back on the previous two years. At the APC 1996 there was no reference to resolutions from 1995. The Assistant Secretary for SD&TD, Mr P Modakewau did give the opening address and he lamented, there were '.... new (student) discipline problems of a magnitude never experienced before in teachers colleges ... (including drugs) and this will not be assisted by a (OHE) computerised selection system'. He was strong in his encouragement of principals to be '... managers of teaching programmes' (APC 1996:6). Other new issues on the agenda coincided with the closing address by Mr J Tetaga, Secretary for Education, which included: that PMIC had commenced, with assistance of Australian aid, an Elementary Teachers' Certificate programme for teachers to teach in Reform village vernacular classes, and a two-year Certificate holder's in-service upgrading diploma; that the intake of Grade 12 students to community school colleges was 30 entrants in 1996, increasing numbers at that level being essential for higher education status; that the SD&TD officers would soon move their offices from General Education Services Wing in the NDOE to the (new) Higher Education Wing of the NDOE; that course requirements of the draft National Higher Education Accreditation Policy was tabled by OHE for consideration (and Tetaga recalled ATE had begun this inferring ATE had ceased operating) and 'the anticipated establishment of the Council of Teacher Education in the near future (for which); substantial progress will be made in this area over the next year' (APC 1996:45).

Besides the leadership role again of the two NDOE officers at the APC 1996, a paper was delivered by Dr S Hayfield of the Office of Higher Education (OHE) on the subject of the

PNG Higher Education Project. He explained that in 1991 the Government adopted the National Higher Education Plan. The Project began in April 1994 (which coincided with NITE rejection), was funded for five years under a loan agreement between the Government of PNG and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and that the executing agency for the Project was the Commission for Higher Education. The SD&TD senior curriculum officer, Mrs E Veneo was recorded as saying at the APC 1996,

> In 1994 there was a big number of consultants. In 1995 there was not so many consultants. In 1996 consultation goes on. Some have been and gone, others are still to come (APC 1996:32-33).

Dr Hayfield gave more than thirty names of consultants detailed for 1994-1996 (Appendix 5.11). That this was attempted by the OHE, applied for unilaterally and in curriculum areas was irregular. The APC 1996 report collated by the EO, Principal of Holy Trinity, Mr J Waka, demonstrated an increased OHE role in what were 'normally' SD&TD duties. The Resolution 96/2 commended CHE for now keeping principals informed regarding when consultants were to visit.

After the APC 1996, there was a paper to the NEB from SD&TD requesting that the Teacher Education Committee (TEC) which reported on mainly operational matters to the NEB, be 'reactivated' since it was three years since the last meeting. Another SD&TD request to the NEB late in 1996 was to 'reactivate' the National Teacher Education Board of Studies (NTEBS), which advised the Minister on curriculum matters as there were no meetings from October 1993 to the end of 1996. The Honourable Moi Avei, Minister for Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology, (a Ministry not existing in June, 1994) stated in an (undated) press release that he 'has established a National Council for Teacher Education. This council has been constituted under Section 20 (establishment of co-ordinating bodies for higher education) of the Higher Education Act, 1983 ... the first meeting will be held in early 1995' (Appendix 5.10). Yet, two years later the APC Resolution 96/4 made it clear no Council was established. It had urged CHE to take action about 'the implementation ... of the accreditation policies in teacher education institutions' (see consultant's letter Appendix 5.12 (b)).

If the TEC, NTEBS, ATE and NITE and its alternative (a Council) were not operating, then what was happening to national policies and practices in teacher education? What sustained a disrupted but previously rigorous teacher education system during the latter part of 1994, 1995 and 1996? A memo to principals from G Gibson as Chairperson of

ATE in November 1994 spoke of the 'political and bureaucratic moves to sort out responsibility as between ... the new Ministry of Higher Education and Ministry of Education'. Gibson's immediate concerns were the two 'visits of the Australian aid group', and establishment of a 'national co-ordinating body for teacher education, *within the higher education sector*'. Dr Gibson wrote 'The idea (of a Council) is still being pursued but has lost some momentum'.

In May 1995, OHE wrote to the Deputy Prime Minister spelling out the 'impact of the financial crisis to higher education' in particular to students in boarding institutions. The letter explained there were 42 tertiary institutions in PNG with a total of 9 000 students of which 7 200 were Natschol awardees. That CHE is 'responsible for student scholarships, and to an extent, for institutional maintenance; and the parent government Departments such a Health, Education, Agriculture, Fisheries, Transport ... *for institutional support* and funding'. The request was for the Minister for Finance and Planning 'to honour approved 1995 budgetary appropriations'. No cash flow resulted in some students being sent home early, until finance became available. The withdrawal of local funding available for Departmental staff to travel out to provincial colleges for their meetings, inspections or for workshops meant the overseas consultants whose projects were already functioning with aid or loan outside funding for travel and accommodation, visited colleges which were comparatively quiet during 1995 and 1996. Representatives of overseas funding agencies listed in head office meetings and colleges in 1996 included ADB, AusAID, EU, World Bank and IMF, APEID, ACEID and UNESCO.

Although the SD&TD staff and the OHE staff were recorded as having each contributed activities to teachers' colleges, one group was in the National Department of Education implementing their normal duties, while the other, in the Commission for Higher Education with seemingly hijacked initiative. For a time each section had their own Minister. The implications included difficulties with co-herent and co-hesive policy implementation.

Summary of Policies and Issues: APC 1994 to 1996

1994 to 1996: Policies related to: rejection of the NEB recommendation of a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) by the Minister, recommendations for a National Council for Teacher Education made by an *ad hoc* CHE committee, Commission for

Higher Education (CHE) arranged Asian Development Bank and Australian aid, international consultancies to colleges (1994 to 1996), creation of a Ministry of Higher Education (later withdrawn), an *ad hoc* role made by the CHE for its own leadership in primary teacher education.

CONCLUSION 1946 TO 1996

This chapter presented data that highlighted the policies of the fifty post-war years of teacher education. It looked at the beginning stage of pre-independence development, the growth of a nation-wide education system and the place made in that system for teacher training and then teacher education during the period 1946 to 1996. It showed that following disparate efforts, after 1968 through to 1994, an alliance of church and government teacher educators worked as a team for vigorous college programmes, perhaps due to their interests coinciding at that stage. It was a co-operative forward looking achievement, supported by the input of stakeholders in-country and abroad. What was missing was a permanent group outside the NES which would continue to survive despite, it was thought, the future vagaries of the public service, politics and churches. A National Institute of Teacher Education was interpreted by most people as a means of conserving best practice in PNG, and support in the future. The policies were traced through to mid-1994 from when 'things fell apart' either by design or by mishap. Between 1994 and the end of 1996 many academic visitors to individual colleges wrote consultancy reports. The data indicate colleges may have experienced irregular independence, before the next stage of the colleges' own evolution which included again overseas authoritarianism.

The selected data in this chapter focused on significant aspects of policy-making and implementation in a developing country and in relation to one small but important part of a National Education System, teacher education. Quite apart from the constant need for more and better primary/community school teachers throughout the fifty years and the consequent attention from politicians and governments, there was determined attachment to teacher preparation by the churches for their integral purposes. After 1968, through most of the latter years, the team of pre-service colleges, consisted of eight church institutions, representing two churches in the largest numbers (Roman Catholic and Lutheran), the United Church, the Evangelical Alliance, the Anglican and the Seventh Day Adventist and with one government college and in time, a supportive inservice college. Some cohesion was retained through to 1994 by a purpose in common.

There was a flow from post-war administration officers' attitude of helping small mission training centres, to the 'team' effort achievements of the 1970s and 1980s, and the combined research providing the three-year Diploma and Association of Teacher Education from 1990. The timing was ideal for the 'right' kind of PNG Institute of Teacher Education in 1994. One could have evolved smoothly and professionally (even if not the most costly model) with more communication between parties, enabling them to save, and not squander the hard won chance.

In Chapter Six, within the background related to this point, the localisation of the professional staff of colleges is identified as a major process in development.

Plate 5.5: The Annual Principals' Conference 1982
Principals and Four Central Office Staff Members, PMIC

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: WHAT POLICIES SUPPORTED THE PREPARATION OF INDIGENOUS LECTURERS AND HOW DID THESE RELATE TO THE WORK OF THE TEACHER EDUCATION SYSTEM?

INTRODUCTION

The findings related to the second of the study's research questions, *What policies supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these relate to the work of the teacher education system?* are presented in this chapter.

A detailed analysis of the historical evolution of post-war PNG teacher preparation was carried out to answer four research questions. Chapter Five answered Research Question 1 and gave a longitudinal view of the 50 years 1946 to 1996 with emphasis on teacher education policies and practice. With that overview in mind the emphasis in Research Question 2 is the important process of the localisation of college teaching staff and leadership, which meant replacement of expatriates with indigenous personnel.

This chapter begins with identifying examples of early involvement of native staff as teachers and teacher educators and the original difficulties before both general and specific policies supported the employment of indigenous lecturers. The recognition of a need is related to localisation programmes and plans for formal staff development. The implications for the work of those in the teacher education system is then explained.

PREPARING NATIONALS TO BE TEACHERS' COLLEGE STAFF

Introduction

From the 1880s to the 1950s those who prepared the natives to teach school were, in the main, overseas missionaries and this was very loosely monitored by government. The mode and emphasis changed from mission to mission and through the years. Government officers were involved in training in the latter years of this period. The early post-war administrator, the Honourable Jack K Murray in a 'policy and problems' paper delivered at the University of Queensland, appears well ahead of his political times in the following

comments :

> No teachers, no schools! The training of teachers is an immediate task and one of magnitude ... It will be necessary to train a large staff of native teachers as soon as possible, not only because the expense of maintaining a large staff of Australian teachers is too great, but also because the natives must be able to man their own educational services if self-government is to be achieved. (Murray 1949:31)

Early Evidence of Native Staff and Training

The following are six examples of mission and government personnel involved with preparing teachers. There is a clear indication of native teachers being trained or with a role in training others.

1. A comprehensive 29 page Pastoral Letter of instructions to Papuan 'catechist-teachers' was distributed in 1916 and again in 1923 by the French Bishop De Boisemu of the Catholic Sacred Heart Mission, Yule Island and was used into the 1940s and after the war. This document provided detailed guidelines of how to teach and expectations were that the one native person would have three roles: a religious leader, a village-school master and a model for family life. (Smith 1985:151). It was probably the first PNG effort at teacher preparation by 'distance education'.

2. The Reverend Dr Percy Chatterton tells of his first contact with local school teachers in 1924 at a Papuan London Missionary Society (LMS) school situated near Port Moresby harbour. As he stood by the flag-pole on which the Union Jack had been raised in 1884, near the pre-fabricated cottage the crew of the mission ship 'John Williams' had built in 1874 for the first British missionary, Dr Lawes, Chatterton was amazed by hundreds of small children milling around: boys in calico loincloths and girls in grass skirts. He watched as the Australian teacher with her 'Papuan helpers' moved off to the bamboo schoolroom and was then told the remaining children were his class. After one year his room was built and in the meantime he was helped by his 'Papuan assistant teachers' who also taught him the local motu language. Chatterton spent the next 15 years teaching there at Hanuabada during which time he was given 'Papuans to train as teachers' while he had other full-time classroom teaching jobs. He reflected that -

> Due to our poverty and our chronic shortage of overseas staff, we were willy-nilly "localising" well ahead of the field, and in my closing years of mission service were to see the establishment of a fully self-governing indigenous church, the Papua Ekalesia, on the foundations laid by the L.M.S. over a period of eighty years. (Chatterton 1980:6)

3. Nancy White, an Anglican mission teacher, relates her first day in 1948 at Sangara school, in the Northern Province which had more than 400 children and 'three trained native teachers'. She speaks of a 'licensed teacher-evangelist' assisting, and

> ...ten pupil teachers, who were volunteers with some education, trying hard to help. Their only training was what we could give them in the teachers' classes on a Friday and by preparing work for them. (White 1991:4)

4. Albert Maori Kiki tells in his autobiography of passing out of the Orokolo mission school '... with Standard V in 1946. My teacher felt I would make a good missionary ...' (Kiki 1968:60). Instead he went to the village, joined his brother at an army camp near Sogeri, was a temporary 'doctor boy', and 'tea boy' and finally taken to Sogeri school by an expatriate mentor. Pertinent glimpses of this part of his life are here in his own words.

> I spent 1949 to 1951 in Sogeri school. It was there that I learned to speak English properly. All our teachers were Australians, with the exception of a few Papuan tutors who were ex-students of Sogeri themselves ... The biggest thing ... was that it brought me together with other boys from all parts of Papua and New Guinea ... Many remain my friends.
>
> In the final year at Sogeri we all automatically took a teachers' course that would enable us to take a teaching job, though we were not yet regarded as qualified teachers. (Kiki 1968:69)

5. P N Matane, the chairman of the Ministerial Committee which compiled 'A Philosophy of Education for PNG' (commonly called the Matane Report), writes of his experience with indigenous schooling and his own teacher training. When he completed Standard V at a mission primary school in 1950 he was one of ten boys selected for Kerevat Secondary School, but he writes, 'I was not quite happy to go as I spoke no English' (Matane 1972:91). His last year there was 1955 and he flew from Rabaul, in the Territory of New Guinea over to Port Moresby in Papua to attend the government 'Sogeri Teacher Training and High School' (Sogeri

Education Centre). He '... spent 1956 at this school doing a course of teacher training... ' then returned to Tavui as 'assistant teacher' to teach 17 Standard Four children, four of whom were girls (Matane 1972:100).

6. Along the north coast and into the highlands of the New Guinea mainland, the German, American and Australian Lutheran missionaries were harshly challenged in every way and change was slow. Related to the question of who prepared the school-teachers in the Lutheran school system, one is especially struck by the closely integrated nature of this church's philosophy. In Amele, near Madang, one of dozens of stations, the first baptism took place in 1922 and two years later, a teacher training school was opened to prepare teachers and helpers. Teacher training was seen as the 'heart of its (the Church's) evangelisation program', young men were prepared for teaching in village schools, services to village congregations and outreach work in new areas. The terms used were 'teacher-preacher' and 'mission-helper' (Reiner 1987: 135).

In these six examples there are various concepts - 'catechist-teachers' (Roman Catholic); 'Papuan helpers', 'Papuan assistant teachers' (London Missionary Society); 'trained native teachers', 'licensed teacher-evangelists', 'pupil teachers' (Anglican); 'Papuan tutors', 'assistant teachers' (Administration) and terms used by the Lutherans in the same decades are 'teacher-preacher' and 'mission-helper'. For a decade after World War II each mission and the administration were following their own teacher preparation practices, with no common government policy.

When in 1955 Minister Hasluck expressed his intention of making New Guinea an English-speaking country, all educational work was then to be in English. It was seen by the Lutheran mission, that 'a teacher may be a preacher but no longer was a teacher-preacher the ultimate goal of teacher-training' (Horndasch 1987:391). The trainers were overseas pastors working in a local language and using the few transcribed scriptures as the 'school' text books. The new concept of education was that no longer was schooling only an activity based on baptism and required for nurture in the Christian faith.

Language of instruction had always been a serious issue for a mission but in the late 1950s it needed an immediate new decision. Papuan schools were paid an allowance when English was taught. When it became the medium of instruction in both Territories

some missions had no person on staff who spoke English. The missionary may have been commissioned speaking French, German, Dutch, American-English or a Pacific language. According to the individual policy of a mission, teaching may have been in the language spoken in the immediate villages, in a local language spoken by a larger group in which there was some Biblical translation already carried out, in a lingua franca trade language like pidgin and motu reaching thousands of people, or in a foreign native language selected as the mission language. Some pre-embarkation training in linguistics assisted missionaries, but there are examples of students learning the mother tongue of the foreigner. Missionaries came with specific skills, some diffusion strategies and, after the earliest intervention, the work itself introduced the particular natives and their environment. They were all consciously or unconsciously 'teachers' and 'teacher trainers' for they embodied new ways and worked for a transfer of new ways of thinking, talking and doing and ideas. The natives were keen to observe and mimic and were usually willing participants.

Accelerated Indigenisation of Senior Staff and Leadership

In the early 1960s Minister for Territories Hasluck gave the first general Administration directive to increase the participation of indigenous officers in all sectors of the Public Service, especially in leadership and higher level roles. Each government department was encouraged to initiate, select and train its own indigenous staff (McNamara 1974:177). The Health Department began the process by sending some medical staff to Fiji, and offered a one year Health Education Diploma for primary teachers, subsequently supplying to most of the teachers colleges their first qualified 'assistant lecturers'; these being in Health Education with which Physical Education was paired. The Education Department in 1963 commenced an 'accelerated' localisation policy which, due to the attitudes of the era, only took shape slowly.

Innovative action was necessary to accelerate the preparation and promotion of indigenous officers. A scheme for experienced teachers was launched in January 1963 called the Senior Officers Course (SOC). The purpose, details and some of the difficulties are in Appendix 6.1. After three years of the Senior Officers' scheme in 1965, some reactions noted by Mr G Gibson, who had recommended the establishment of the programme to Director Johnson, were:

- Inadequate (no) co-ordination with executive training in other departments.
- Recognition of the graduates (their courses) refused by the Department of the Public Service Commission.
- No sustained (little widespread) interest and policy commitment by the Administration from the highest levels.
- An obsession with academic requirements and interests of expatriates: professional competence was seen as less important than academic status.
- Difficulty of getting nationals real responsibility in order to practice taking responsibility.
- Lack of further systematic follow-up for many of the national officers in the field (except in the case of college lecturers).
- Poor salaries and accommodation or high rentals affected morale, attitudes and efficiency. (Gibson 1971:19)

Explanations in brackets added by Gibson, personal communication September 2000.

Consequently, this particular Senior Officers' preparation scheme was discontinued. There was tension between the Australian Government intentions, or at least those of Minister Hasluck, and slow translation into action in the Territory where the leadership provided no pressure, only tentative moves. The increase of capable indigenous potential outpaced opportunities for higher status. From 1966 onwards, the senior officers' programme was aimed at preparing Headmasters only, the content was changed to focus more on the primary school and its curriculum and the two original staff resigned. Those initial staff and the carefully selected replacement officers who followed, were expected to have a long-term influence, and care was taken with identifying the most suitable expatriates for the role.

Indigenous Staff for Teachers' Colleges

A member of the first Senior Officers course, Mr Mata Tau a mature Papuan teacher, was posted mid-1963 for his field experience to the English Department at Goroka Teachers College (GTC). The previous year, Mr Asi Vaname, a champion sportsman and new graduate from the first two year 'C' Course group at Port Moresby Teachers College (PMTC), was also posted to GTC and conducted the Physical Education and Sports subjects in the one year 'A' Course for men. He had qualified for 'C' Course entry having completed Standards 7, 8 and 9 and the Queensland University Junior Public examination. By 1964 Miss Rose Kekedo, a demonstration school teacher who had graduated with Asi Vaname, was appointed to the Infant Method Studies Department of PMTC and in the next year was joined from the field by Mr Konda Aisoli, English Language; Mr Vincent Vinivel, Music and Mr Vincent Eri, Education. Mr Waituka

Maina completed an Australian School of Pacific Administration (ASOPA) Education cadetship and became an inservice lecturer at PMTC. Three of these local staff attended secondary education on scholarships to private boarding schools in Australia under Hasluck's Secondary Scholarship Scheme, as had many of the student teachers on the 'C' course at PMTC in the early 1960s. All these local officers were candidates for the localisation of expatriate held positions.

Later, Miss Jackie Kini, a demonstration school teacher who had completed the Health Department's earliest Diploma in Health Education, then Miss Kukavai Tiden were successive staff members at PMTC who had completed their Form 3 or Form 4 in PNG. These women each came to hold also the position of Assistant Warden and moved on to become Warden of Women Students, at Madang Teachers College (MTC) and PMTC when those 'extra-curricular' welfare positions were localised in the early 1970s.

Meanwhile the Methodist (later renamed United Church), centres at Ruatoka, Papua and Gaulim, New Guinea employed Mr Joel Tulasoi in Physical Education and Miss Winnie Kaviula in Health Education. The Asia Pacific Christian Mission, later renamed Evangelical Alliance of PNG, selected a senior teacher to work in Physical Education and the Lutherans nominated Miss Sagilam Kadeu for a Health and Physical Education lectureship. These 'assistant lecturers' as they were called were 'A' Course graduates from the colleges where they were employed. They had acquired some extra confidence via mission sponsored opportunities, e.g., a religious studies course overseas or a choir tour to Australia. There was less likelihood of the many Roman Catholic centres needing to employ national staff, as they were generously staffed by overseas sponsored women and men in religious orders or single volunteer missionaries, and were inclined to have separate gender institutions too, which were easier to supervise. However, Sister Anna Natera and Brother Mark Vabongoi, were employed to lecture in Health Education. The Lutheran centres were strong in the area of indigenous pastors, employed as student counsellors. Through the 1950s to the mid-1960s there was the difficulty of 'status' for officially employing government college staff. The variation in salary and employment conditions between government and mission college staff also bred discontent until the formation of the joint Teaching Service in 1970.

The first senior departmental headquarters position to be localised was that of the Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education. After a few months working along side Dr

Geoff Gibson, Mr Loa Reva, a young experienced primary teacher, graduate of a Senior Officers' course and one of the first BEd graduates of UPNG, took over the role of Assistant Secretary in 1972 (see Plate 6.1). He died suddenly within two years. His inexplicable death at home one weekend was said to be 'puripuri' or sorcery, perhaps because he was seen by his peers to be ahead of his time. This was not an uncommon attitude. Mr George Obara, who was not a trained teacher and even younger than Mr Reva, had graduated from UPNG with Mr Reva, been an associate Inspector in headquarters for two years and he took over the Assistant Secretary role until being posted as a diplomat to London. Henceforth that position continued to be localised. Miss Rose Kekedo, who had been sponsored privately through a sports specialisation, completed a first degree in USA and in 1973 was appointed deputy principal of PMTC on the grounds of this qualification and without an associateship preparation. By 1978 Miss Sagilam Kadeu was principal of Madang TC. Mrs Marihare Liriope, BEd (UPNG) (Inservice) and Miss Hiap Saliau, BA (UPNG) (Inspections) also began planned teacher education headquarters attachments at this time. It is possible to see the rate of localisation trend for some other senior leadership roles in Appendices 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5.

While this study has its focus on teachers college localisation and amplifies that unique work, before going further it needs to be said that numerically teacher education was an important but very small part of the Department of Education. There were other large government departments in the administration of Papua and New Guinea, as well as private enterprise, and in the bigger picture Australian government provided an 'ambiguity at political level about overall goals' (McNamara 1974:178). While Minister for Territories Hasluck, up to his reassignment at the end of 1963, had acted and spoken with his personal style of conviction about preparing the indigenous people for self-government and it was this that had lead Gibson and Walker to plan confidently and to implement their SOC from 1963 to 1965 anticipating a process of development, McNamara speaking immediately prior to independence refers to 'Eight years in the wilderness' and only a 'small pool of local executives' (McNamara 1974:178). He was referring to those small groups of ex-teachers who went through the Senior Officers' Courses. There was a tilt or a "tipping" (a term quoted by McNamara at the time, and coined in the USA about Afro-Americans moving into 'white suburbs' in such numbers that the whites moved out) of policy and attitudes, when Prime Minister Gorton replaced the Minister of Territories Barnes with Mr Peacock. The political decision was formally announced (May, 1970) that Australia would make Papua and New Guinea self-governing

in 1972. It was the end of 1972 before the Public Service changed structures to enable indigenous people to move to higher levels. In the case of teacher education, the Government Gazette qualifications made the need for a Victorian (Australian) Leaving certificate the academics pre-requisite to become an Education Officer. It was the announcement, that expatriate Public Servants would be 'compensated' for loss of career prospects, which changed the attitudes of the hundreds of Australian Public Servants who would be 'localised', to a more positive co-operation with accelerated training for national staff. This was especially true for the officers with families, who were inclined to see it better for their children to grow up in their own culture, and that with a 'golden handshake' could relocate sooner.

Within the Department of Education the process of 'identifying and screening' or finding serving teachers with potential began. Re-directing the potential to where it could be best used within the whole system was an executive development scheme task. Entrance was through an Executive Assessment Workshop then to either one or more of the following activities - work attachment, experience, formal academia and/or professional study before appointment. This was conceived and carried through in an academic, ordered and consistent manner over the next ten years. The beginning stages of this are recorded and related to leadership needs (Hicks 1969); executive potential (McKinnon & Daloz 1971) and anthropological comparisons between aspects of indigenous tribalism and western competitiveness (Bulmer 1971). There were marked differences between the teachers who came from each part of Papua-New Guinea and while, as teachers, they had served unity well across all parts of the islands, now the preparation was for objective nation-wide leadership. The progress and processes of the scheme were evaluated (Mulford 1973) and the additional financial and administrative flexibility to provide extra positions for preparation carefully planned (McNamara 1974). For teachers' college staff, a small number of additional 'training positions' were funded annually into which 'associateship' programmes for indigenous college staff were fitted.

By 1975 overseas career officers were returning to Australia. Many had studied during their sojourn by correspondence with the University of London, Massey University, New Zealand or the Department of Extension Studies, University of Queensland. Once Independence was imminent they had wanted to move as quickly as possible to gain employment. The Public Service overseas recruitment had, to this point, been mainly in Australia; some stayed on, especially single officers on short term PNG government

contracts, in advisory, specialist or training roles. Volunteers from the Canadian University Service Overseas (CUSO), Australian Volunteers Abroad (AVA) and Volunteer Service Overseas (VSO) from UK were obtained by Teacher Education Division for the mission colleges to fill any short-fall in college staffing. TED also recruited in the United Kingdom for contract officers on three occasions and this was coordinated by Mr Obara in London. Specialists were needed to staff the two government colleges. Localisation in colleges was by then recognised as a specific and urgent policy and use of expatriates was only to be for a transition period while national staff gained planned qualifications and experience.

Specialised Formal Preparation for College Lecturers

Planning qualifications and experience to localise colleges became an increasing challenge. Over and above the duty statements of superintendents, the small head office Teacher Education Division (TED) staff were the coordinators of resources (funds and personnel) to achieve targets. The superintendents of operations and particularly of curriculum and inspections (interpreted from 1973 as incorporating a college staff development role) personally attended to each individual involved (both supervisor and associate - and at times family welfare), liaising with other co-ordinators.

Diploma in Educational Studies (Tertiary) UPNG (1974-1986)

Dr Gibson (the localised Assistant Secretary) moved to a position at UPNG funded by the Department of Education, and this began a new era. His role was to coordinate the education of cohorts of local lecturers. He designed and had accepted by the university, a two year undergraduate diploma specialising in tertiary work, for trained and experienced young teachers who had been identified with potential for teachers' college staff. This was one category of a series of under-graduate diplomas being offered by the UPNG to enable qualified teachers to specialise. Other specialist areas offered were administration, counselling, curriculum, planning and inspections.

In 1972 and 1973 five mature primary teachers who were identified as prospective college staff were granted 'visiting lecturer' status at Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAE) financed by Australian aid. This group included Mr William Penias and those experienced staff working in government and mission colleges mentioned earlier. The

Diploma in Educational Studies (Tertiary) UPNG built onto that link with CCAE. Dr Gibson's new selected two-year diploma students went there for one year, commencing in 1974 a long term productive professional working relationship within the teacher education system: between Australian aid, UPNG, NDOE, the college supervisory staff and CCAE. The format, in brief, which was adjusted and improved over the years came to be practical work for six months in a PNG college, then a UPNG Christmas school holidays session of six weeks' duration, called a 'Lahara'. It included tertiary teaching skills, followed by one year of specialist subject content and some more general education subjects and experience at Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAE), and back into the colleges for six months. Finally, if deemed satisfactory both personally and professionally, the associate lecturer was posted mid-year as an acting lecturer to a college with an appropriate subject vacancy.

A very significant move for the National Department of Education (NDOE) which impinged on all members of the joint teaching service, was the setting up of the Staff Development Unit (SDU) in 1976. The SDU was situated within the Teacher Education Division. Its superintendent, executive identification staff, and the SDU committees worked closely with the Secretary for Education and the department's Executive Development Committee (EDC) on the localisation part of their duties. The role of superintendent of SDU was sensitive and diplomacy was essential. Officers in that superintendent's job included Walker (previously an original senior officers' course co-ordinator who returned to PNG to set-up the SDU), Modakewau (previously a primary school inspector and after a 5 year senior associateship), Dennett (previously inspector and EO for the EDC), Liriope (10 years experience in Teacher Education Division), Robinson (previously staff and principal PMTC) and Tapo (10 years experience in Curriculum Unit and SDU). The three nationals, Modakewau, Liriope and Tapo were each promoted from the Superintendent SDU role to become the Assistant Secretary Teacher Education Division (Staff Development and Training Division) during the 1976-1996 period.

Staff Development Unit committees and divisional and college staff worked with UPNG over the next ten years to advertise, test, screen, tutor and monitor 15 lecturer candidates per year. Supervision was rigorous and between seven and twelve of the original 15 candidates completed the diploma annually. The college staff Teaching Service establishments were re-organised post-independence, lecturing positions included equivalence qualifications and it was possible for the Diploma holders to apply to college

Governing Councils and win substantive lecturer positions in a specialist subject at lecturer Education Officer level (EO3 or EO4 graduates). Concurrently, formal individualised associateship programmes were planned for from one to four years. This accelerated appointment to positions of principals (EO9) and deputy principals (EO8) for college lecturers who showed leadership potential but who needed academic qualifications, in the first instance a university degree.

Supervisors in colleges officially became honorary accredited 'tutors' of the UPNG Department of Education. The principal and supervisor were asked by the co-ordinator to take associates. If agreed, the tutor's role was to guide preparation, lecturing performance and follow-up; professional observations, current events discussions, diary-keeping, set reading assistance and self-assessment reports. A written investigation paper was a serious undertaking as were in-house duties. The focus was on developing college lecturers who were 'self-starters prepared to accept responsibility, able to teach well, demonstrate thinking effectively and able to work under pressure' (Robinson & Schofield 1980:4). As with the earliest of on-the-job staff training, supervisors' contribution as 'tutor' was additional to their own full-time work load and received no additional remuneration from UPNG nor NDOE. This involved a lot of additional work across most of the colleges between 1973 and 1993, as staff interpreted the staff development tasks required of them at given stages.

Dr Gibson, as the co-ordinator and university senior lecturer, on his visit to colleges paid special attention to the diary-keeping which promoted learning from each day's activities. Supervisors advised associates to 'think about what you do, see and hear and apply what you learn from what you and others do, see and hear for your own growth and development' (Robinson & Schofield 1980:21). Dr Gibson travelled each term to the colleges where his students were placed before the CCAE component and organised and conducted the intensive tertiary teaching programme on campus at the UPNG Lahara. The successful associates went to CCAE to a specially designed sequence of general and specialist units which were regularly reviewed and adapted by the host university and Dr Gibson on behalf of UPNG. CCAC staff over the years included Dr P Hughes, Mr A Brady, Dr Cal Zinkel, Dr W Mulford, Dr G Boulton-Lewis, Dr J Pettman and Dr K McCrae, all of whom made useful contributions and travelled to PNG for the purpose of seeking current needs and insights from the UPNG, the TED and college personnel.

The majority of involved CCAE staff since the early 1970s had prior experience working in PNG. They adjusted their courses to fit existing priorities. In 1980 speaking to a conference about the student lecturers, Dr J Pettman managed to put the activity into the context of 'development' theories, then described how it was 'tailored' as follows:

> The Canberra course is officially charged with responsibility for providing comparative experience and knowledge. It aims to make the associate lecturers more aware of:
>
> (a) trends in the primary education which may be applicable to PNG;
>
> (b) trends in the primary curriculum of their own subject area;
>
> (c) alternative ways of organising teacher education;
>
> (d) new methods of teaching and learning at the tertiary level.
>
> This course also aims to assist in the personal development of the associate lecturers through a general broadening experience.
>
> The details of the course have varied somewhat from year to year, and within years, especially related to different curriculum areas. However, together with curriculum work and tertiary teaching strands, associate lecturers undertake special courses, in English, counselling, and micro-teaching, and electives from the School of Education programme. There are field trips, including to the South Pacific Association of Teacher Education conferences, and to Aboriginal education institutions in the Northern Territory and Adelaide. (Pettman, 1980:10)

From the original 1972-1973 'visiting lecturer' programme through the 15 years of the UPNG undergraduate specialised diploma, the challenge was always to make the content relevant: and the co-ordinator, but especially the Australian university staff were challenged. The PNG student's English and basic reading skills needed immediate improvement. On the other hand, for the in-country segment, the best 'tutors' did exhaustive one-to-one work on thinking skills, involvement within the college community and the national and overseas media, which assisted English competence.

This UPNG Diploma was finally upgraded to degree status with an additional year of study. In February, 1987 the Bachelor of Education (Tertiary) began at UPNG. Dr Gibson left UPNG to take up a position as Head of Department at the Pacific Adventist College (PAC). By the mid-1980s some of the college supervisors (tutors) were nationals, and this number grew, but due to transfers between colleges and leave for study this was not consistent. In years 1986 and 1987 localisation efforts were at the highest point and the SDU had in process a total of 70 associateships across all divisions of the NDOE (O'Toole 1988:26).

The Bachelor of Education (Tertiary) (1987-1996)

The lengthened programme was the result of an effort by the TED over many years to gain more depth, subject speciality studies and upgrading of the status of a lecturer. The year at Canberra continued until Queensland University of Technology (QUT) won the contract from the Australian Development Assistance Bureau (ADAB) for the students to attend QUT campus from 1989. Thereafter, the new format was one year in a college, one year at UPNG and one year at QUT, Brisbane (instead of Canberra). Bro Denis McLaughlin, a lecturer at the Kaindi Teachers College, Wewak was appointed by the university to the co-ordinator position which was to be no longer funded by NDOE but reverted to UPNG establishment. Mr McLaughlin over the four years he held the position, took an academic approach to the task, regularly producing papers, a large amount of printed course material to assist students and college supervisors and prepared academic journal articles. The extension meant there was one full year included on the UPNG campus with offerings such as Studies in Teaching, Supervision of the Practicum, Seminar for Tertiary Educators, Seminar for Tertiary Teaching, the Reflective Teacher (McLaughlin 1987, a, b, c, d, e). He continued to emphasise the reflective practitioner (Schön 1983) approach to lecturer preparation. The serving national lecturers were already working in colleges with colleagues skilled in micro-teaching procedures, making use of the clinical supervision cycle with their student-teachers (Acheson & Gall 1980), and were familiar with the practical African text (Farrant 1980), the underpinning of the philosophy for PNG (Matane 1986) as well as updates on practicum integration with other subjects (Turney et al., 1985), locally produced materials (Cudmore & Smith 1987) and fostering reflection (Francis 1991).

Mr Angus Ross was the next BEd (Tertiary) co-ordinator until he became terminally ill. The position was localised within the incumbent localised university staff by 1993. Both BEd (Inservice) and BEd (Tertiary) continued to be three-year programmes and were still offered by UPNG in 1996 (see Plate 6.2).

World Bank Staff Development Project (1982-1988)

Separate from the on-going liaison between PNG and Australian universities, for the professional preparation of some 15 PNG lecturers annually, funded by awards from the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (AIDAB), was another

professional development undertaking. It was recorded in the World Bank (1982-1987) First Primary Education Project, that a Teacher Training Sub-project was 'to improve the development and retention of national staff for all Teacher Training colleges (Primary) in the country and to achieve a target of 50 percent localisation in the colleges by the end of the project' (p.25 paragraph 3.15). The project was funded for 73.5 man-years of study over five years. This would in the long term, reduce the average teacher education salary costs per staff member by 25 percent, when nationals replaced overseas contract officers. The sub-project had funding for three categories of study. The first category was to increase the numbers of national college lecturers and add to the variety of specialisations, while the other two categories were professional development opportunities for serving lecturers. Locally, this was called the Education II Project (being the second multi-million kina World Bank loan to PNG). The categories, or 'prongs' as they were called in the World Bank Project were used for localisation as follows:

Category One: New recruits with specialist qualifications gained elsewhere, for example qualified Librarians or Agricultural graduates for whom 'teacher training', 'school experiences' and 'tertiary teaching skills' were needed. These were considered knowledge gaps for which courses, structured preparation or teaching experience were required.

Category Two: National lecturers for whom long periods away from families was difficult or who lacked pre-requisites for formal study courses. Short overseas 'study tours' or courses of three months' duration or 'attachments' to specialists were all seen as a 'broadening' exposure and these were possible with extra funding.

Category Three: National lecturers currently serving in colleges who were qualified and available to be released for overseas post-graduate studies. These were for specialist diplomas, where available, or Masters programmes in Australia, United Kingdom or New Zealand in the first instance, and later in-country. This was a cost saving decision, but the preference of some nationals which enabled more individuals to be funded.

The World Bank Sub-project also made provision for six man-years of 'specialist services' which was for a full-time division-based Senior Staff Development Officer (SSDO) to co-ordinate the extra work World Bank funded implementation generated. The first SSDO position was advertised by TED in USA, UK and NZ. Dr Perinpanagam, a Sri Lankan from UK trained in the USA, was appointed and remained for three years until

September 1984. The government, soon after independence, did not recruit in Australia. Due to prompt availability Sr Joan O'Toole, an Australian with college experience in PNG, was appointed SSDO in 1985 and remained until the end of the World Bank Project. The SSDO position was then created on the recurrent budget and Sr O'Toole continued. As World Bank officers had plentiful travel funds, this officer had been able to fly regularly to the local colleges and to Australia and give face-to-face liaison and attention to both operational and professional demands of individual national staff in pre-departure, study and follow-up stages. In one-year study periods at universities, especially overseas, it was essential that no time was unnecessarily wasted by cultural adjustment.

A detailed evaluation of the teacher education World Bank Project 1982 to 1987 was completed (Ross 1987). The project was reported to be successful in terms of making use of the allocated man-years of professional development for national college staff. The actual actioning of all the details was one aspect, but 'relevance' remained a challenge. Localisation of lecturer positions in teachers colleges had reached 54 percent by 1987 and was projected to be 60 percent by 1990. While 75.5 man-years had been planned, 88.5 had actually been funded by 1987 due to the generous extension of some overseas post-graduate study periods. In 1982, 8.5 percent of lecturers had university degrees and by 1987, 37 percent of lecturers had completed degrees with others in the process of completion. The evaluation recommended that the SSDO position become a recurrent position. A summary of profiles for each fellowship category ('prong') indicates the flexibility and wide variety of study opportunities that were offered (Ross 1987: 51-54) (Appendix 6.6). There were fifteen recommendations in the conclusion many of which had already been carried out. One was that a follow-up 'impact evaluation' by the SSDO was desirable to identify the actual impact on the work in colleges of the returned Fellows.

The SSDO implemented the recommendations and the following year, analysed data related to the period 1982-1988 and published a comprehensive report (O'Toole 1988). The Ross Report had documented how the Fellows 'perceived' the impact of their training. Inspectors identified needs with individuals, but they were able to list their own professional priorities and do this before and after study. The O'Toole impact evaluation report focussed on the beginning base level lecturer four (Education Officer 4). Characteristics were identified from the opinions of 55 percent of college staff (92 out of 166 staff) involved internally and these were then compared for what was required in the

duty statement and inspection report format. The SSDO position was localised in 1995 by a senior lecturer from the PMIC, who completed an associateship for the job.

Profile of the National Staff

A profile of the lecturers working in the colleges over the period 1990-1993 implementing the new Diploma in Teaching (Primary) showed they spanned this preparation, offered to them between the 1970s and 1990s (Table 6.1) and elaborated herein. The college staff had all experienced individualised formal study and professional development programmes of various sorts during that period either at UPNG or overseas on short or long courses (see Appendix 6.7). In addition, the Teacher Education Division was nominated as the UNESCO Centre within the Department, which meant as a member country it regularly received notification of educational events in the developing world. The three-month South-East Asian courses, in TESL, science or materials construction, were appropriate and popular with college lecturers. But they had to compete with head office and field staff in all divisions for selection. The USA-based Kellogg Foundation working through Dr R McCraig of the University of New England, Armidale, Australia funded five years of aid for administrative workshops. Over three years these were directed to indigenous tertiary leadership and principals and deputy principals of teachers colleges, technical colleges and national high schools participated. Teachers college staff had a very generous allocation of PNG Department of Education professional development funding, as well as Australian aid and World Bank loan finance but because the SDU, which was responsible for selections, was in the Teacher Education Division, one-off invitations to overseas conferences were only occasionally offered to TED staff (see Appendix 6.8 for 1993 college staff composition).

Lecturers' horizons were expanding. They met other lecturers in PNG through regular curriculum workshops. Each experienced person taught in one specialisation but then extended to two subject areas. Additional 'broadening' opportunities included - corresponding with staff overseas, paid fares to home provinces every two years, working in syllabus committees at national level and with provincial departments of education and travelling to schools throughout a province for supervising practical teaching. By 1993 all colleges had facsimile machines and some campuses were linked to international television. However, a college telephone was not open to staff and too costly for use other than in an emergency and photocopying was closely regulated with 'good' copies as

TABLE 6.1 - OVERVIEW OF EXTERNAL FINANCIAL SPONSORSHIP FOR PREPARING NATIONALS TO BE COLLEGE STAFF

Year	Sponsor (Australia)	Australian Institution	Purpose	Year	Sponsors (International)	Institutions	Purpose
1972 and 1973	AIDAB	CCAE	1 year Enrichment for mature educators with 'visiting lecturer' status				
1974-1985	AIDAB	CCAE	1 year of the Diploma in Educational Studies (tertiary) (UPNG)				
1986-1988	AIDAB	CCAE	One-off provisions, eg TESL, Physical Education, Masters, Graduate Diploma	1982-1988	World Bank Loan	Overseas to Asia, UK, Pacific and In-country	Gaining specialist qualifications; gaining teaching qualifications in specialisation; post graduate studies
1989-1996	AIDAB	QUT	• 1 year of the Bachelor of Educational Studies (UPNG) • 1 year Masters programmes for Senior staff	1994-1996	Asian Development Bank (ADB)	Overseas	Higher degrees

Concurrent with Australian aid (AIDAB) and World Bank funding was the sponsorship by the PNG government through selection by the Department of Education in-house committees, then finance for travel, family movements and additional years for the opportunity to complete a qualification. Movements in and out of teachers colleges by air and to UPNG, plus salary was a major investment in their teachers college staff by Papua New Guinea.

AIDAB	Australian International Development Aid Bureau
CCAE	Canberra College of Advanced Education
QUT	Queensland University of Technology
ADB	Asian Development Bank

precious as thirty years before. By the Annual Principals' Conference 1996, it is noted in the report, that eight of the ten principals were nationals, one expatriate was departing at the end of 1996 with a national appointment made, the other expatriate was to depart at the end of 1997 with a woman national identified and qualified and in a deputy role to assume the principal's position in 1998. There was no record of deputy principals being present at the 1996 conference (for development and continuity purposes as was policy at an earlier stage), and the two SDA representatives were expatriates. The four Catholic colleges had expatriates in religious orders as the deputy principals. By 1996 Madang, Balob and Port Moresby Inservice College, with enrolments of over 350 students, each had two deputy principal positions. Dr Solon, a Manus Islander who completed post-graduate studies in Canada, continued to be principal of the Goroka secondary college, then a campus of UPNG. The Australian UPNG Vice Chancellor presented a paper. Four visiting overseas academic consultants were observers, sponsored by the Office of Higher Education and an Asian Development Bank (ADB) loan.

The two government colleges were the two with expatriate principals being localised in 1997 and 1998. In fact, both these colleges had been the first to localise the principal positions in the mid-1970s; Miss Rose Kekedo, PMTC and Mr W Penias, Madang. The deputy principals had also been localised for different periods at each of these colleges. Then as those experienced senior staff from Madang were promoted in the system or elsewhere, and Port Moresby took on a major inservice and vocational training role, with no other nationals available at that point, the leadership positions temporarily reverted to expatriates. The selected expatriates rebuilt the internal structures and new identity and from the 1980s the two colleges and staff played a major role in supervision of associates and preparation of senior staff for other colleges, in a stimulating social milieu (Robinson 1978:148). PMIC had success in preparing indigenous assistant administrative staff, e.g., campus manager, dining hall supervisor, stenographers (see Plate 6.3). For a summary of the preparation of indigenous staff from teacher training to teacher education see also Appendix 6.9.

By 1993 the Chairman of CHE, the Professor of Education UPNG, the Assistant Secretary for SD&TD were women, two of them nationals.

CONCLUSION

The data on the evolution of indigenous teachers' college lecturers indicate that teacher training needs began gradually after settlement and in retrospect it is seen that this led to natives being involved in the training of natives as teachers. The process of introducing indigenous people to western education and have them then teach others to teach western education is a difficult twist and had two basic threads of incremental change: operational conditions of employment and professional development, linked with curricular in the schools and training centres.

After the consolidation of dozens of small training centres accelerated in 1968, the continuation of the Annual Principals' Conferences from then on and the formation of the joint Teaching Service in 1970, the few indigenous staff employed in each of the government and mission colleges were not so isolated and scattered. Henceforth, both employment conditions and professional standards were drawn into a common teacher education team effort and involvement in three decades of careful localisation planning and implementation towards transition.

The data show that indigenous staff moved from menial categories to a stage in 1993 when more than 70 percent of the total professional college staff appointments were Papua New Guineans with university preparation for roles in the classroom and in the leadership of the ten substantial tertiary institutions. Full indigenisation (localisation) was the immediate goal of the government. Expatriate employees were on short term government contracts only or within government issued Mission/Church work permit quotas.

This study of one type of job, teaching, presents a slice of society and it mirrors the attitudes of westerners locally and internationally to 'native peoples'. Primary teachers, it would seem, were performing a crucial task, as the schooling outcome formed a basis for other modern changes, yet teacher preparation had attitudinal and consequently funding barriers over many decades. Next, Chapter Seven presents the college programmes over the same time-span.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WHAT HISTORICALLY CONSTITUTED PRE-SERVICE PROGRAMMES FOR PREPARING TEACHERS INCLUDING THE NEW THREE YEAR DIPLOMA IN TEACHING (PRIMARY)?

INTRODUCTION

A detailed analysis of the historical evolution of post-war teacher preparation was carried out to answer four research questions. In Chapter Five Research Question 1 presented findings related to a longitudinal view of the fifty years 1946 to 1996 and the emphasis was the policies which form the structure of progress. In Chapter Six Research Question 2 the emphasis was the process of localisation of college staff. Chapter Seven deals with Research Question 3, i.e., the programmes in the colleges over time including the new Diploma, while in Chapter Eight, Research Question 4, the emphasis will be on the classroom implementation of the new Diploma programme 1991 to 1993.

PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY TEACHING PREPARATION PROGRAMMES

Introduction

The actual content of government primary teacher preparation through the early years, i.e., 1940s and 1950s, and how it was implemented is found in rare pieces located in the literature. Few policies or circulars were related to programme content, as the focus was more often on finding a venue, suitable trainees and their travel arrangements. There is, however, the private diary of a staff member, Miss Jean Parle which permits glimpses of an original programme.

The Sogeri Teacher Training Programmes 1948

Miss Parle's diary written at the Sogeri Education Centre in 1948, gave an insider's view of a programme. There was a group of more than 60 teacher trainees divided into two classes. Two other groups were pursuing two years of primary school study prior to automatically moving into the teacher training year. In 1948, however, the trainees, as seen in a posed photograph (Plate 7.1), were mature men, many of whom brought their

Plate 7.1: Sogeri Education Centre 1948 Teacher Trainees

wives and smallest children. Some already had teaching experience. The staff at the training section of Sogeri Education Centre, were three inexperienced Australians and (Miss) Tani Sisa, a Kwato instructor. Specialists contributed short courses. For example, Miss Barbara McLaughlan, a senior officer at headquarters came to teach Health Education; Miss Phyllis Abel, a member of the Kwato Mission family in Milne Bay came for two weeks to teach handcrafts and Mr Ray Sheridan to teach music. There were many visitors who drove up from Port Moresby for the day: transient education officers from the districts passing through; mission representatives checking out students who originated in some other part of the country and tourists brought by public servants. It was one of the few places to go, but also because it was seen to be a rare government school venture worth showing to interested or important overseas people. Such visitors were introduced to classes in session and asked to speak to the students. This was considered a way of broadening the social knowledge of the trainee teachers. Marching, choral performances and feasts were offered by students as entertainment for guests.

The classrooms were open-sided and with a corrugated iron roof, which meant afternoon classes were regularly suspended when the rain came in or made it impossible to hear. Staff time was wasted by the power generator breaking down and insufficient lamps being available. Vehicle repairs, due to the rough trips to Moresby for food, medical care, business and communications, were a constant concern. Welfare for staff and students consumed thought and extra duties which also impinged on formal teaching time.

The diary mentioned classes in Psychology, Health Education, Handcrafts, Methods, Mathematics and Music, also examinations and a Demonstration School for the students' own children. Parle and Sheridan, two colleagues, were trying to work out, and often disagreeing about, what should be taught and how to go about it. Quoting from one interaction about course content gave rise to reflections about programme discussions:

> Saturday 10 April: Ray comes to my quarters whilst I do the ironing ... We attempt to plan some line of attack for this teaching of music.
>
> Sunday 11 April: Ray organises a sing-sing at night. I listen from starlight because chaperonage of women. Ray produces all manner of native music.
>
> Monday 12 April: After tea I sit on the front steps and Ray comes over to talk about the music course we need to agree about. His conviction is that there is such a high standard of culture among N.G. natives that somehow their music must be saved from the swamping by European music as has happened at Rabaul. I agree that the opportunity offered at Sogeri must not be missed.
>
> Thursday 15 April: I am to take both groups until Frank gets Stock Book in

> order (the truck comes tomorrow). There's a music period and Ray takes both groups together (62+). He talks to them about the merits of native and European music.
>
> Friday April 16: Ray takes a most interesting period: Rhythms through the world's music. There are still some dissatisfied ones in the class, who ask when they will begin to learn music? (*They wanted to be able to read the music in the books themselves.*)
>
> Thursday 6 May: Ray's last day. He decides against the marching display planned and we all sit under the gum trees and he talks again about conserving all that is worth keeping and in danger of destruction.

In this vignette, it can be seen the two staff members debated 'content', but neither 'heard' the native trainees' perception of their own needs. If student-teachers could read music it enabled them to choose choir pieces for themselves and pupils.

Small groups were attached to such schools as Kerevat and then Dregerhafen in the late 1940s and early 1950s. The one or two trainers and the trainees were a temporary addition to functioning rural centres. In the late-1950s Popondetta took post-Standard 5 girls only (a group of up to 30), from both New Guinea and Papua, for preparation to teach 'infant' classes. Normally, the trainees were men.

Orientation to Teacher Training Curriculum in the 1950s and into the 1960s

Policy communications from headquarters in the 1950s and 1960s came out as Circular Memoranda from the Directors. Spare copies were rare and circulars were usually brief, with printing on both sides of the page. The circular identified whether two or three copies of a memorandum were sent to the district. Reference was made to 'copies sent' and 'applying for another copy' (Groves 1954:No 50). There were many 'drafts' of formal documents, which gave the idea of tentativeness, and the possibility arose of a field officer following the 'wrong' draft. Information was in a 'booklet' with a government identification; simplicity in the name of flexibility, impending changes or 'better things' to come and paper shortage. Many of the mission teaching books were from the country of the mission's sponsorship, culturally different and without Melanesian children in illustrations. On one occasion, a text book that was recommended was found to be unavailable, the District Education Officers were asked to see if they could find one and 'advise the Department immediately' (Groves 1954:No 50).

The title of the teaching qualification from the 1950s was A, B, C or E Certificate. Such

an identification printed on the document was thus some indication of the holder's entry qualification (see Chapter 5:14-15). Qualifications changed dependent on supply of applicants (groups varied between 12 and 30), on length of study (there was a one year and then a two year B Course) and on what Primary T (Territory children) class level (standard) the teacher was qualified to teach (although 'refresher' or inservice courses could upgrade this later). The lecturer taught 'subjects' within a certificate 'Course'. The names given to the subjects studied were the same as, or similar to, those used in the primary school. College programmes had a strong focus on how the beginning teacher would use the current primary syllabus and materials to teach a class level and on theories of how a child learns, especially after 1967 when, following drafts, the very detailed Primary T Syllabus was published (DOE:1967).

After 1970, when each college had a Governing Council with its own Board of Studies, colleges were given some suggestions from TED as to how their staff might set out, the material in written form. A consistent style and terminology gradually grew in the records which assisted the comprehension of outsiders attending regular meetings at colleges. The lecturer drew up details of a 'course outline' (for his subject) and the use of the word 'course' changed. Within this, there were 'units' of work. A senior lecturer, or head of department, may write the course outline and different junior lecturers may write and teach particular units of work for a 'first year' or 'second year' college group. Courses were typed on stencils and duplicated on machines, many of which were in need of overhaul, producing poor copies. Clear copies were counted carefully for members of a committee but were not readily available within or outside the college, and mission colleges were not accustomed to sharing. The whole overview came to be called a 'programme' to differentiate from the way the label 'course' had come to be used.

From the earliest experience, the term 'curriculum' was identified with all the colleges being residential, so students were away from their home area and in a 'foreign' district, and therefore in a different 'culture'. This meant colleges were automatically responsible *in loco parentis* for students. Staffing evening and weekend sport and social activities as well as supervision of a 'dormitory', later 'halls of residence' or a 'mess', later 'dining hall' was accepted by staff. The 'curriculum', meant all that went on for the length of the programme, seven days a week and 24 hours a day, where student learning opportunities arose for which principal and staff were ever alert and seriously committed. It could include wide-ranging contact like personal hygiene, table manners, conflict resolution and

games umpiring. The academic staff carried out roles themselves that could now be called hostel supervision, counselling, librarianship or recreational duties. The students and staff quickly built up a college culture, an organised island of behaviours away from surrounding differences, supposedly preparing students for a teacher's life when they graduated.

This *in loco parentis* responsibility was an implicit policy and lead to the term 'social climate'. The implicit policy of 'all-round' professional development: social, spiritual, academic and physical being vital, was the concept later central to the national education philosophy (Matane 1986) but had always been integral to teacher education. A symposium report (DOE 1973) and workshop reports (NDOE 1987, 1988) later dealt with college social climate. These were means of inspiring the principals and leaders to run more democratic and open institutions, less like boarding high schools or old time mission stations. The terms 'pastor', 'elder', 'matron', 'warden', 'dean' and 'counsellor' were used in reports over time in relation to social welfare and mentors. In a Social Climate symposium the Superintendent Curriculum and Inspections, Teacher Education Division, Dr J Farrell commented -

> ... another aspect of the preparation of teachers has come to be of growing concern ... demands on beginning teachers, in communities they serve, require a well-adjusted person who is reliable, capable of accepting responsibility, confident with other people, and able to make personal decisions with good judgement and satisfaction ... In a dozen colleges operated by the government and the churches, student teachers are being prepared to work in an education system in which they will all face similar complexities and challenges. Yet it is recognised by these institutions that within them there is a wide range of social climates, a range which an outsider might describe as restrictive to permissive. While difference in the character of colleges is unavoidable and desirable, some of us have wondered just how different colleges can be from one another and still be preparing teachers for a common system and for a country with unified national aspirations. (DOE 1973:5)

The same symposium was attended by all deputy principals, who often were the ones who dealt with students and co-ordinated the whole programme, and guidance and counselling officers from headquarters. In an attempt to recognise the country's own various cultures or 'way(s) of looking at things', some 11 indigenous national public figures were invited. They were: K Uiari, F Lovell, I Vele, G Singkai, J Abaijah, O Oala-Rarua, A Tololo, A Taviai, W Maina, E Veneo-Moide, A Isoaimo. The Secretary for Education, Dr K McKinnon stated as follows:

> The personal and social development of student teachers is the first responsibility of a teachers college. If this area is not adequately provided for the academic and professional endeavours of the institution will largely be wasted. It is more

> important for a student to be developed as a self-reliant person than to be equipped with a set of professional skills.
>
> A teachers college must have a clearly thought-out value position which will influence all its activities. Its philosophy and goals should be well articulated to staff and students, and they should form the basis of the institution's structure and curriculum. Whatever goes on in a college should reflect the value position which the college professes. (DOE 1973:15)

Farrell and McKinnon could have mentioned the composition and nature of the student-body. However, Goode and Farrell (1971) drew attention to the severe adjustment problems faced by many students in the unfamiliar multi-tribal environment of a teachers' college. Students came from diverse local cultures and there was constant potential for conflicts. The social climate concept was linked also with respect for the opposite gender in the college community. An effort was made for female participation, which was the antithesis to many local attitudes and customs. Fourteen years later another Secretary for Education, Mr S G Roakeina, addressing a UPNG Women in Education conference stated as follows:

> Insofar as the present national policy is for *equal* opportunity, women are part of that development. The Eight Point Improvement Plan (1972) is the only document that specifically mentioned 'women', separately. Elsewhere, including the Constitution and the national bid for Universal Primary Education, we speak of *all people*. (Wormald & Crossley 1985:18) (The emphasis is the author's).

The identification of this 'whole curriculum' movement was accepted by Governing Councils. For the church colleges their central religious orientation was already broader than just 'subjects'. They took many years, however, to see students as young adults seeking experiences of independence, especially in personal relationships, in a 'safe' milieu, *prior to graduation.* For example, one college included a 'family planning' segment in the Orientation course and encouraged men and women students to respect each other. Another college gave a similar course in the last week of the two year programme and sponsored separate men's and women's colleges. Other colleges excluded sex education from the programme. A pregnancy meant the woman departing quietly and not returning, according to government 'custom' (or implicit policy). The treating of students 'like adults' was an essential objective, given the extreme pressure of the complex society into which they were graduating, and considering their role as teachers and supposedly 'bearers' of a new modern culture.

Syllabuses for Teachers' Colleges

There were duplicated brief notes prepared for teacher trainers, at the Sogeri Education Centre (Parle 1968) and known as the 1948 Syllabus. To summarise a revised document, the 1950 Syllabus, for a three year cumulative correspondence course:

> Year One: General Education - 8 hours for reading and writing in a vernacular or pidgin and 12 hours for nine other subjects at Standard Two and Three levels.
>
> Year Two: Professional Studies - 10 hours for village schools method and 10 hours for general education to Standard Four level. Satisfactory completion qualified a person to teach in village vernacular schools.
>
> Year Three: Advanced professional training to teach in village higher schools.

In a circular to the districts in 1954 Director Groves referred to Memorandum No 29 of 1952 requiring native teachers to undertake a course of study over two years - English and Social Studies and School Management and Mathematics in the second year. The circular goes on to request the cooperation of the European staff and 'whenever two or three teachers are at the same school, or at a school not far apart, help each other (with their monthly assignments)' (Groves 1954:No 25). It claimed that without such provision and help from Education Officers, Native Teachers 'may never have the opportunity to complete the ultimate full course of two years post-secondary professional training'.

The Department's *Teacher Training Syllabus, One Year Course, 1962* (56 pages) became the official document for A Certificate candidates, qualifying them for teaching the Infant Classes - Preparatory, Standards One and Two. The contents of that book indicate the kind of practical guidance headquarters issued, leaving the lecturer to interpret.

- Organisation of a Teachers' College
- Examination Procedures
- Supervised Practical Teaching
- Demonstration Lessons
- Aids Making
- Blackboard Practice
- English for Teaching
- Tutorials
- Social Training
- Lecture Requirements: The English Language, Language Drills, Story Telling, Oral Composition, Phonetics and Speech Training, Written Sentences, Writing, Spelling and Dictation, Written Composition, Reading, Arithmetic, Social Studies, Health, Natural Science, Art Craft, Physical Education, Music and Singing, Ethics and Morals, School Management, Teaching Principles.
- Appendices:

Time-Tables for College Use
Practical Examination Mark Sheet and Criteria
Suggested Plan for Preparation of Lessons
Suggested Aids List
Bibliography
(DOE 1962:3)

The 1954 document had consisted of duplicated notes and therefore was not readily available in the field by 1960, given that the centres moved from place to place and few records were kept. Other drafts, of duplicated materials were made available during the 1960s for B Course, C Course (and later E Course Certificate) programmes. The former were so brief, they were only of little assistance; so examination questions, both from headquarters and later within the colleges, were general and difficult to assess. Consequently, content and standards of the programmes varied. The Department of Education created a teacher training 'division' in 1958, which consisted at first of one professional officer. The 1962 printed booklet remained the only published statement on teacher education curriculum until Ministerial Statement No 22 1977 (Appendix 7.1). Prior to this, it was commonly explained by headquarters personnel that 'curriculum must constantly change'.

Colleges in the Overall System Network

Geographically, teachers' colleges were consolidated in eight provinces (see Map after page xiv). From the perspective of a place for colleges in the overall education system, that became much clearer also in the 1970s. The report of The Advisory Committee on Education in Papua and New Guinea, 1969 (Weeden Report) was an important next step. Its vast 44 recommendations included that there be a Teacher Eduction Committee (TEC) of the Territory Education Board (TEB). This was one of the few recommendations from that report that was implemented. The consequential Committee advised the Board on all teacher education matters and acted on requests from the Board. Controlling authorities were to establish 'a governing body' for a college, and it would be an integral part of the whole network. This improved internal college programme planning.

Subsequently, there was the establishment of a Governing Council in each college and following that, a Board of Studies (later renamed Academic Advisory Committee) for each Governing Council. The former situation of a college officer-in-charge corresponding individually with the Teacher Education Officer of the Department of

Education for support and direction was then reduced. The principal became answerable to the formal committees: to the college's agency and as their Executive Officer communicating via Minutes of Meetings to the Director (later Secretary), at headquarters and to the EO of the Teacher Education Committee (TEC) of the Territory (later National) Education Board (NEB). Internal college examinations were the responsibility of individual Boards of Studies (AAC). However, the Secretary for Education was still responsible for 'standards' of implementation. The Secretary was represented on Councils and Boards by Teacher Education Division officers who flew to provinces to attend, on his behalf, up to four of each of these meetings at every college. From this point, the quality, experience, commitment and continuity of membership of committees became important for standards and for curriculum development. Some of the older and experienced missionaries found it very hard to accept any government involvement, and often challenged representatives in meetings.

At the first Annual Principals Conference (APC) held in 1968 the Secretary's theme was 'consolidation' of institutional resources. This meant consolidating programmes and closing many more small colleges within mission agencies. While on the one hand agencies were apprehensive that government would take control, on the other hand, they wanted to improve. Some colleges, like Yule Island, the remaining Catholic college in Papua, resisted. The professional papers produced by principals regarding programme issues demonstrated that they were independently thinking similarly. Dr H H Penny claimed in 1969 that the 'beginnings' went on for more than 60 years and should not be called 'foundations' since the 'take off' stage was in a struggling system only two decades old (APC 1969:30). It is seen from APC reports that co-operation was unsuccessfully attempted by the Gaulim principal (D Parry) over three years. He wanted reluctant fellow principals to share, on paper, details of their college Practical Teaching organisation in order to commence a Teacher Education Journal (APC 1969-1972).

The first indigenous Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education, Mr L Reva in a draft review to the Principal Publication Officer wrote that innovations included:

> Colleges are free to adjust their courses according to the needs of their students. Moves to develop college curricula in terms of student attitudes and formation and problem solving ability as well as basic teaching methods and knowledge ... Boards of Studies are responsible for the analysis of the courses taught and the supervision of the curricula. Other action includes the cessation of inspection visits and the beginning of advisory visits (to staff and principals); the cessation of annual external examinations and the introduction of cumulative assessment schemes. (Reva 1973:3-4)

During the following years there was emphasis in colleges on the planning and operational aspects of implementing the new formalised committees. Then reactions to successive five-year education plan drafts over the self-government and independence period (1973, 1974, 1975 and 1976-1980). In addresses, the Secretary for Education constantly encouraged principals to work together and with the headquarters officers, to produce quality teachers for the newly independent nation.

At the University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) Extraordinary Meeting of the Faculty of Education clearer future policy directions were requested (Penias & Quartermaine 1981). Fourteen pitfalls, diagnosed by the Commonwealth Secretariat (Mahlalela 1979:74-75), relating broadly to the content of a programme, were responded to, quoting the current PNG institutional implementation. The paper concluded 'colleges in PNG are not very different from those of other Commonwealth developing countries' (1981:13) and that some of the pitfalls had been avoided. One point made was that the post-independence Education Plan came out over four years in four different drafts. Another issue was that preparing a person who was simultaneously a generalist primary teacher, a community-based community teacher and a specialist with a 'tilt in the direction of essential competencies in basic education' (Rogers 1979:24), was impossible and not attempted, given the standard of student-teacher intake and only a two year programme. The presentation by Penias and Quartermaine on behalf of the Teacher Education Division asked for advice on more realistic directions for teacher preparation and 'What will the children learn?'. It was pointed out that 'there had been no centralised re-orientation to the 1976-1980 Education Plan'. Teacher Education Division, working with the colleges, interpreted the draft plans as though they were policy; but with the occurrence of annual major changes, colleges and head office were confused. In the UPNG forum TED representatives were able to indicate this dilemma.

Post-Independence Progress

It was not until APC 1976 that the far-reaching curriculum implications, of 'localisation' demands, began to be understood by the teachers' college principals and their mission agencies. A system of nation-wide training for the localisation of college lecturer and leadership positions began in a scheme co-ordinated and funded by the government. Teacher Education Division, including the Inservice section (later Staff Development Unit - SDU), supported by UPNG and Australian aid, planned 'associateships' and the best

lecturers in all the colleges assisted for various periods. Candidates were to attend university in Australia and Papua New Guinea as part of a two-year or longer, 'associateship' programme. Thus, the college subject syllabuses and whole college curriculum were going to be exposed to more 'outsiders': transient associate indigenous lecturers, from various Christian denominations and provinces, and visitors who were their professional supervisors from UPNG, headquarters and Australia. In response, the principals quickly formulated conference recommendations that included requests for clarification of internal assessment systems, requests for appropriate guidelines to offer new staff and updates on supervisory techniques. There was acceptance by principals and their agencies of the idea of central planning for localisation, whereas tension might have been anticipated. That implementation plans meant their colleges would all be helping train lecturers for service who, in the long term, may or may not be applying for positions in their own college, was also accepted. This approach was as different to church agencies selecting nationals from their own denomination and placing them in their own college to localise positions at their own pace without special professional preparation. By 1972 a group of assistant lecturers went to Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAE) (Chapter 6). An 'across the board' scheme proved to be a very significant step for the content of pre-service programmes. In the subsequent processing of 'localisation', over the next twenty years, it further combined efforts of staffs, in a common purpose for teacher education and the 'team' enterprise.

The *PNG Education Gazette* published Ministerial Statement No 22/77 Curricula for Educational Institutions of Papua New Guinea (Appendix No 7.1), which was the first post-Independence official curriculum policy statement on Teacher Education and was consistent with programme content directions already evolving. It highlighted the fact that the Minister for Education was responsible for curriculum in colleges. At the APC 1977, the recommendations included that headquarters put a high priority on funding staff curriculum workshops; with Education Studies and Teaching English as a Second Language workshops held immediately and that Mathematics and one other following. Principals would even share funding, if four could be operationalised in 1977 by Teacher Education Division (TED). They also proposed, for 1978, Community Life (Social Science and Agriculture), Expressive Arts (Art and Craft and Music and Dance), Science and Christian Education, for which they would contribute some funding. This was the first record of the principals united in a request for college curriculum guidance, and, by implication, of their need for assistance. While normally they asked for more finance,

they enjoyed autonomy in what they taught. It was another step in the transmission of their trust for each other and government officers, and a facing of the facts that the accelerated post-Independence localisation intentions were going to reveal what they were doing in the college classrooms.

Four workshops were indeed held, and useful material was produced by the college staff themselves. The material was distributed back to staff in multiple copies without alteration by the TED, for checking, adjustments and future production. One to three staff from each college met for each workshop at a low-cost central point. Participants invited were the available national staff as priority, with experienced available expatriates added. Balob teachers' college, Lae, which had a Lutheran Mission Guest House, was the most common venue. The professional attitudes of the Balob principal, Mr Fred Stolz, whose college had absorbed the small Anglican college, reassured the more conservative college representatives (APC 1979:51). Every workshop was seen to be listening to local needs, understandings and mis-understandings, and indigenous opinions. They were to generate a Papua New Guinean course guide for their own use. The Education Studies group was the first in the series which comprised 50 percent national staff and it set the helpful pattern for structuring the guidelines.

For the proposed 1978 workshops funding was scarce so application was made for Australian aid. The Australian Development Assistance Bureau (ADAB) was sponsoring annually up to 15 serving indigenous lecturers since 1972 for programmes at Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAE). Mr John Streckfuss promptly investigated the financial support request in November 1977. He was a staff member sent by ADAB from the International Training Institute, Mosman, NSW, Australia (earlier Australian School of Pacific Administration - ASOPA). He examined the quality and quantity of material produced for Education Studies, English Language Skills, English as a Second Language and Mathematics Studies and supported the request in a perceptive detailed submission to ADAB. He wrote '... independent development has meant colleges have little shared awareness' and in brief, that he understood the workshops were to -

(a) produce a uniform course core, expressed in behavioural objectives, which one expects the training to produce

(b) permit colleges' Boards of Studies freedom to develop methodologies and to enrich the core of studies

(c) extract the expertise of expatriates who have lengthy experience in PNG teacher colleges and who are about to leave (e.g. five senior lecturers in

Science are leaving PNG in December 1977)

(d) allow national officers to learn skills of running workshops and developing curriculum.

(Streckfuss 1977:2)

As an 'outsider' on a five day visit Mr Streckfuss commented that it was necessary to fly in order to communicate and that the workshops were important because unlike Australia there were no other professional opportunities for staff to gain interaction with peers. He went on to explain:

> Some colleges pursue the belief that a teacher should have knowledge ... beyond the content of the Community (Primary) School curriculum ... Port Moresby Teacher College, one of the two government colleges, curtailed its ambitious knowledge acquisition programme in favour of a basic skills orientation.They believe the teacher must first and foremost be able to communicate at the level of knowledge of Grade 6 primary school (1977:2).

His calculations were for six, 'week-long College Curriculum Workshops, in Agriculture, Social Science, Music and Dance, Art and Craft, Physical Education and Health' (1977:3). A workshop was costed for in-country airfares and accommodation for a minimum of 15 participants (plus a different Australian visiting expert selected by the host country), and was quoted as approximately K5 000 per workshop throughout 1978. The PNG staffing scheduled in that paper was: nine colleges, with a total of 166 staff, 27 of whom were nationals and 139 non-nationals as at December, 1976 (Streckfuss 1977). Mr Streckfuss' sensitivity to the strategic nature of these proposed six workshops (which were later extended after his own participation in one workshop, to include Library Skills and Christian Studies) and his prompt action enabled the recommendations of the principals for course and professional development to continue. The 'Australian visiting experts' identified by the TED, were localised overseas teacher education officers, matching their expertise with current in-country needs. These people were employed in tertiary or allied specialist roles in Australia and were an example of the quality of people who had been employed in PNG teacher education and who had gained high level employment elsewhere (Appendix 7.2).

Workshop groups, made up of staff from all colleges, with other in-country representatives from the Curriculum Unit, UPNG, Goroka Secondary Teachers College, the University of Technology and the Research Unit, worked day and evening for a week. Participants eagerly became involved with staff from other colleges, then took back the draft materials produced in the workshop for their own subject and reported to the college

staff meeting. This assisted confidence-building in the lecturer ranks and assisted change, although the principal may not have understood details. Each finalised draft booklet had to be formally accepted by the Teacher Education Committee and the National Education Board. Once such documents were 'accepted' they were seen to be 'policy'. The documents then served as guidelines from which colleges selected. There was a ferment of excitement across colleges and the wider community who attended college Council and Board meetings. It appeared that, for the first time, all were 'paddling' in the same direction and it was an excellent environment of co-operation for the incubation of new young national lecturers pursuing their Diploma Education Studies (Tertiary) UPNG, which included at least a one-year associateship attachment at a college (Chapter 6).

Principals recommended more workshops including for Practice Teaching, Assessment Skills and Systems, Basic Performance Skills in English and in Mathematics. After debate, and to avoid any sense of 'authoritarianism', the outcomes were called *National Objectives for Teachers College Courses*, the issuance of a common 'syllabus' or 'curriculum' being avoided. Seventeen subject areas and two administrative activities were in booklets being used by colleges and the universities for content reference by the early 1980s. Recruited overseas short-term volunteers were also assisted in their orientation by the professional guidelines. It was seen with experience that draft material being trialled was ambitious and would benefit by revision (see Appendix 7.3(a)).

The format created by the workshop participants for the National Objectives documents included:

An Introduction, written in the first Education Studies workshop and replicated upon request for all the other booklets. It included a section to College Staff, and read - 'The Education Plan 1976-80 stated it is "... time to work on from separate (college) initiatives...".'
Each Subject had a preamble then Topics to be studied within the Subject. Under the Topic there was a sentence stem - 'The graduating student must be able to' - then a list of activities.
The knowledge, skills and attitudes activities in formulation needed to meet the criteria - 'be essential, be relevant, be attainable and be measurable'.

The national staff in the first workshop, who were given encouragement to play a pivotal

role, asked for the inclusion of the following reminders in each booklet's preamble:

(a) that guidelines must be in clearly expressed language that can be understood by any newcomer to a college where there is no one to explain what is meant and

(b) that a suitable course outline format would include -

Time	Objectives	Content	Teaching Strategies	Method of Assessment	References

(NDOE 1976:3)

Each workshop produced the Objectives and some References. The staff member would complete the planning back at college by thinking, discussing and filling in the rest of the columns for their own Board of Studies and according to their own use. This was seen as a step forward when compared with earlier developmental phases when submissions to headquarters and to college meetings, after a rationale, were often a brief list of topics.

One of the outcomes, of the combined public nature and success of the workshops, was that Teacher Education Division from 1976 onwards gained funding on the recurrent budget for four curriculum workshops. This was one of the few teacher education head office resources that survived the Department of Finance's annual reviews. With cost adjustments, they proved to be the lifeline for ongoing in-country college curriculum and lecturer professional development into the 1990s. They had roots in principal and staff requests and an overseas consultant's timely recognition of PNG initiative.

Debates on Academic Standards of School Children

In the 1980s there was great concern in the national system about falling academic standards. Grade 10 entrants being selected for colleges (Department of Education (DOE) 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980; Penias & Quartermaine 1981), and the poor reading level of field teachers selected for six or 12 months' courses at PMIC (Plummer 1981) were TED responsibility. Some chose to explain this as being a result of the exodus of expatriate teachers since the early 1970s. The principals at APC 1982 admitted the declining English language facility impinged on all college courses. External examinations for colleges were then proposed by the Secretary's Senior Staff Meeting (SSM) to the NEB. A newspaper article quoting a senior headquarters officer headed *National Examination Plan for Trainee Teachers* accelerated action (B Peril, Post Courier 9/12/82).

The preparation of minimum performance guidelines and remedial materials for Basic Mathematics and Basic English had already been prepared in detail, with college staff, on the request of the principals. There being no other 'course in common', use of those performance guidelines, as a basis for external examinations appeared consistent. External examinations at the end of semester one were proposed to principals at the APC 1983. The principals' response was wary (APC Recommendation 83/9). A system of national external examinations at colleges was thus re-introduced, by the Secretary for Education. Although these were of a different nature, and more precise, compared with those conducted through the 1950s and 1960s, and only ever in basic Standard 6 English and Mathematics. It was mostly the 'external' principle that offended church agencies in the following years. The outcome of the Secretary's decision was workshops refining remedial courses and devising materials to assist the college staff. The pre-test, examination and post-examination were dependent in part on sample questions submitted by college staff annually, in a combined effort to highlight the needs in common: to raise standards. Once the framework for the examinations was launched, in two curriculum workshops per year, staff compiled new question-books and follow-up (three different papers were required annually for each of English and Mathematics). One TED staff member devoted 50 percent of his work-load to accurate paper productions and safe package delivery. TED staff travelled to colleges to listen to each student's spoken English. It was a major professional undertaking.

Concurrently through 1984 to 1986, 17 workshops reviewed and upgraded the National Objectives and they were finally published in two books. National Objectives - Agriculture, Christian Religious Education, Education Studies, English, Expressive Arts, Health Education, Library Studies, Mathematics, Physical Education, Science, Community Life (March 1986); Handbooks for Assessment and for School Experience including Practical Teaching (April 1986). These were still not called a 'syllabus' but retained the generic term 'objectives' originally proposed by the 1977 indigenous staff group. There was flexibility by the professional headquarters teacher education officers, in the ambivalence of their role. The principals were firmly independent, watchful for any imposition from government and wanting TED to respond to *their individual requests* not a required commonality. It was a fine line to tread: Secretary or Minister and their committees on one side with a tendency to 'instruct', policy implementation, and on the other side, the college professionalism for which and with whom the headquarters' professional officers were working. TED raised a temporary sign in their office reading

'Institute of Teacher Education'.

Until the commencement of the three year Diploma in Teaching (Primary) in 1991, the external basic skills examinations continued, but other subjects were never re-introduced. The headquarters teacher education professional officers (public servants) seemingly avoided compliance silently forming an academic alliance with the principals. This issue of external examinations caused friction. The NEB saw the exams as persisting with weeding out weak student-teachers at the beginning of the programme, who would be weak teachers and maintain a vicious cycle of lowering standards in community schools. Principals were permitted to appeal to the Secretary, 'special cases' for retaining failed students and gave such reasons as - strong church affiliate, from remote province, above average classroom teacher, industrious community worker, a female from a given area or a student very successful in all other subjects. The Secretary and the National Education Board (NEB) were determined to improve standards by external monitoring. Members of the NEB were very critical that the Teacher Education Division on behalf of the Secretary had not been conducting centralised examinations over the previous 20 years. They appeared unaware there was no common syllabus, only objectives from which staff and college committees could 'select'. Residential college staff (many of them nationals) teaching English and Mathematics were challenged. They provided remedial teaching and participated in every aspect of examinations and thought their work would be appreciated by others on their own staff. Although often saddened by fail results themselves, they were confused when the attitudes turned against the undertaking (*Post Courier* 1989, 1990; *The Times* 1989). It was difficult to suspend academically weak students once they were known as 'people' in close-knit isolated colleges.

Oversupply of Community School Teachers

A three-year Diploma Programme was recommended by the NEB in 1985, and the TED was instructed to begin to plan for its commencement in 1986. The oversupply of teachers appeared to the NEB an excellent opportunity to improve standards by lengthening the programme (see Plate 7.2). This was not a new idea, as it was one of the issues most often raised at conferences (Table 7.1). The accelerated revision of the National Objectives for Teachers' College Courses (NOTCC) in 1985 was to get an accurate overview of the Certificate curriculum. It was proposed by the Secretary, and accepted by the NEB, that the external examinations in basic literacy and numeracy would

cease when the three year programme began. However, the Diploma commencement was postponed to 1987, to 1989 and then again to 1991, contributing to college impatience.

The National Education Board wanted the three year Diploma postponed, on advice that there was no research to indicate 'longer' meant 'better' quality. The TED liaised with the Research and Policy Division and the outcome was the *Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) Schedule June 1987 to March 1989* (Yeoman 1988). The defined TERP objectives were to look at the field problems of beginning teachers and to determine the most cost effective strategy to improve the quality of primary teacher education. When the three year course was anticipated for 1989, TED was asked by principals (APC 1988) to organise a workshop in Research Skills for national college lecturers. Thus some 30 national lecturers participated in the TERP team as field assistants with the Superintendent of the Policy and Research Division, Mr Angus Ross who began working with Professor Avalos (UPNG).

By the APC 1987, the NEB had reduced college intake quotas: there was a continued oversupply of teachers' college graduates and reducing quotas and raising entry levels was again seen as improving standards. Principals did not like reducing their intake or rejecting applicants from their own church agency. Teacher education was one of the lowest scores offered CHE scholarships. Curriculum workshop funding was still being spent on college basic skills resources. TED funding was also then to cover the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) which had four sub-projects planned, including evaluation of the Basic Skills external examinations. The promised World Bank loan for the research was not forthcoming nor would Australian aid include it in their package.

Testing the Teacher Education 'Team' Cohesion

A paper was delivered at the APC 1988 by the new UPNG teacher education tutor (Dr Gibson having retired from UPNG to the Pacific Adventist College). The tutor had been an Australian church volunteer lecturer in one of the colleges for several years before gaining the university position, and was invited to inform the principals about the new BEd (Tertiary) programme. He had visited all the colleges in his new role and surveyed college programmes. The synthesised data was presented at the APC in an 'argumentation' style befitting delivery of research (McLaughlin 1988). This included such 'findings' as tensions between colleges and headquarters, queries on the origin and

value of the use of performance objectives as syllabus aids, questions about the competencies of student-teachers and external examinations, perceived flaws in course writing and presentation, and shallowness of student learning. Normally, the APC conducted long courteous discussions towards consensus on difficult issues or shared findings constructively. The degree to which the indigenous field and headquarters staff identified with and understood 'their' national objectives was underestimated by the tutor. It was not an imposed syllabus. The experienced principals and the majority of national staff and personnel on committees had already planned the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) and a three-year Diploma as the next stage of programme evolution. While very few agreed with continuation of the external examinations, they were unwilling to accept the strongly critical comments on all of their curriculum efforts.

Tactics likely to disrupt harmony between the colleges and with head office continued with letters to the newspapers by both newly arrived from Australia and senior Catholic religious and their students (Appendix 7.4) and submissions to higher levels. Perhaps based on Australian experience, however, this normally was not the approach of the PNG joint system. Public Service Policy did not allow explanations or letters in the newspaper to respond to professional criticism. Some clarification could have been given to the public related to the examinations, e.g., its joint origins, the expert input and the many efforts already made to accommodate students. The Secretary instead wrote circulars to *all* principals, when most principals were not negative, only resentful of the amount of extra work the imposed exams caused. Vigorous co-operation was needed in PNG to make curriculum tasks for the new national staff, who were now in the majority, clear and viable. The NEB decided to retain basic skills examinations, with adjustments, until 1990 even after some negative research findings (Yeoman 1988). The NDOE was sponsoring TERP as part of a process of relevant, sustainable change. However, factions of expatriates and agencies were the outcome. The next phase of progress commenced with the focus diverted from the college classroom and to the related issue of finance.

Debates developed between the Secretary and principals and their agencies about depleting finances. Some church colleges, which had completely localised, now survived on only government allocations and in-country tithes. Independently, Dr Naomi Tulaho, Chairperson for the CHE called a conference of national principals to discuss finances. If funds became low some colleges had no fall-back support. Responsibilities for planning

TABLE 7.1
A THREE YEAR PROGRAMME AS AN ISSUE AT THE APC 1968 TO 1990

Year	APC Resolutions	Pro Arguments in Favour of 3 Years	Con Arguments in Favour of 3 Years
1968	Resolutions 68/1a, 68/1b, 68/1c; 68/2, 68/3	Advocated for those with higher entrance level to • Become specialist, eg Infant Teacher	New Guinea like other developing countries cannot afford a longer training period than two years
1977	Resolution 77/1	• Immaturity of students • Allow greater field experience	
1979	Resolution 79/7	• Because of lowering of entrance standards more time needed in college 'to catch up'. • New 'community school' concept required additional time • Secondary teachers given 3 years' training • Rapid localisation meant no help in field • Concentrate on 'background knowledge' and 'remedial grade six work' • Length of primary training increasing throughout world • Students do not like enrichment, an extra year for emphasising teaching methods	• Sandwich course trialled could be reintroduced, one year in college, one year in field - one year back in college • One year used to be enough - 'subject competence did not seem to be proportional to length of course' • Little difference in field performance of 1 year and 2 year trained teachers • Not length of course but lack of 'resourcefulness' development and shortage of field materials • Inservice would upgrade later • More content and less school practice needed in 2 years • Now that a 'common course outline exists', evaluate it.
1983	Discussions		First Assistant Secretary stated: • Three year community teacher training is not being considered at the moment.
1984	Discussions	• Trial a 3 year course in some colleges only • A certificate course for 2 years and option to stay on for third year to gain diploma	• Stated only 50% of intake met NEB/CHE criteria (wavering had occurred only to get numbers). Only select those 50% who qualified. Standards would be raised and space in colleges could be used for inservice students from field.
1985	Resolutions 85/37, 85/38, 85/39, 85/40, 85/41, 85/42	• Principals will obtain full staff in order to support commencement of 3 year programme in 1986 • It be three years integrated • All colleges introduce it in same year • Programme be based on revised National Objectives (1985) and five points related to: school syllabuses, deepening knowledge, library skills and guided free time, social skills and self concept and improved student-centred methods	
1986	Repeat of six resolutions in the APC 1985		Mr G Roakeina, Secretary, 'The idea has been floated. colleges have been consulted. World Bank discussed it, and is not in favour of funding the (lending for) programme because PNG government will not go ahead. World Bank would contribute K50 million over 5 years whereas the PNG government proposed a K70 million package'.
1989	Resolutions 89/5, 89/5.1, 2, 3, 4	• TERP Unit 4 (McNamara Report) recommend Year 12 entrants (instead of Year 10) and a three year Diploma programme • Total revision of the programme of studies encouraged and a new one developed at Diploma level.	
1990	Resolution 90/10, 90/11	• Principals support the Secretary's decision (on behalf of NEB) • '... if proper support is given to lecturer to assist him write and implement strands of study and if staff are trusted to be innovative and professional ... the APC assures the Secretary that APC members (principals) will closely monitor and provide leadership in the development of the three year diploma ...'	

finance were changing and became confused between the CHE and its new role, and NDOE Operations officers. The nationals staffing each part of the Minister were timid about doing the wrong thing in an unclear environment.

The round-up of TERP in 1989 was a Task Force chaired by Dr V McNamara who had earlier served in PNG. It produced a comprehensive report which went to the National Education Board (NEB). The main recommendations included a three year Diploma programme and an Institute of Teacher Education. The NEB set up a committee called the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) to draw up details for the Institute and the new curriculum for the Diploma. ATE membership comprised all the principals and several Ministry officers and was chaired by the UPNG Professor of Education. The Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education Division, Mrs M Liriope was the TED representative. The ATE changed the role of the divisional professional officers who had been working on college curriculum to this point 'along-side' lecturers and with UPNG as representatives on committees. The Executive Officer (EO) of ATE from 1991 was a national secondary teacher, a full-time Masters student at UPNG with an office in the Policy and Research Division. He functioned separately from the Teacher Education Division (TED) and assisted the Chairperson of ATE to communicate directly with college principals about their programmes.

In the first meeting of ATE, July 24-26, 1990 a guide booklet was drawn up, called, *Towards a New Three Year Curriculum for Community School Teacher Training*. The National Teacher Education Board of Studies (NTEBS) accepted the guide material with minor modifications and forwarded it to the National Education Board (NEB) for approval in August. The document was then published over the signature of the Chairman of the NEB. Sufficient copies were sent by TED to each college such that all staff had their own copy. The Forward recommended that it 'form a basis for college efforts to write their own programmes'. Thus it was a new policy formulation. The ATE asked that these programmes be directed back at given deadlines. The Professor, as leader, recruited UPNG lecturers as assessors of the Programme and Course Outline material posted by college principals. The Diploma implementation was seen by college staff as a 'top down' strategy where principals were on ATE but not practitioners. The guide framework noted ... 'that the ATE and Teacher Education Division should organise at least two workshops in 1990 and more during 1991 to develop the core curriculum', and the document 'leaves for later, discussion on the area of Practice Teaching and Integrated

Activities'.

Australian Aid and the Queensland University of Technology

The Queensland University of Technology (QUT), previously a campus of Brisbane College of Advanced Education (BCAE), had won an Australian aid bid to conduct professional development in PNG teacher education. Representatives were given a time slot on the agenda at the APC 1990. The understanding was that they were in the country to plan how they would aid college priorities, yet it appeared they had already decided.

> BCAE wins bid to train our teachers ... has just won the tender from AIDAB to train PNG community teachers' college lecturers ... which is programmed for 5 years. NDOE ... UPNG ... BCAC ... engaged in discussions ... (Niugini News 14/11/90)

The guests announced their visit heralded a partnership between QUT and NDOE 1991-1994 to 'improve the educational standards of community Teachers Colleges through the professional development of their teaching staff'. There were to be various components:

1. A year at QUT as part of the UPNG BEd (Tertiary) or BEd (Inservice) lecturer programme with on-going pre-embarkation preparation and follow-up support by facsimile machines donated by the Australian Government;
2. Workshops for national Curriculum Development and Pedagogical Skills and subject specialties Mathematics, Science and Education Studies were targeted;
3. An Environment Scan by six QUT staff travelling to all colleges;
4. Regional English Language improvement courses.

Later in the year the Environment Scan was conducted and their earlier schedule confirmed (Appendix 7.6). The implementation evidently could not divert from their tied aid bid agreement already made with Australian Government staff to which they strongly adhered, despite change requested by TED of QUT and through the Department of Foreign Affairs in PNG. Besides generous financial support for QUT staff to give fixed courses, the extraordinary in-country funding was not available from Australia for participants. NDOE also had too much demand for a small number of college staff and depleted TED finances. There appeared to be a pre-determined QUT view of what was happening and commitment to an action-research approach. Evaluations carried out at the end of each of their courses gave some favourable feedback directly to QUT. Australian aid paid for a QUT-nominated evaluator who explained to SD&TD (TED) personnel what

was meant by 'action-research' (Toomey 1991). The Secretary, Department of Education asked the Policy, Research and Communications Branch to carry out an evaluation survey of whether staff workshop participants were making use of what they learned when they returned to their respective colleges (Wari 1992). This concluded, in summary:

- QUT: to revise the content of the Language Development workshop to cater for curriculum development; to use PNG resource personnel, in future, to provide assistance with curriculum rather than content and to conduct workshops of one week in college break to avoid disruptions:

- Community Teachers Colleges: to ensure participants conduct inservice upon returning to college, to encourage staff to use skills and knowledge gained at workshop for three year programme and

- SD&TD: to recommend only lecturers and senior lecturers to attend workshops (not Principals and Deputy Principals) (1992:15)

The NDOE understood the QUT input was going to be curriculum and course writing assistance via Component 2 workshops and this was consistent with what the ATE document asked related to core curriculum (NEB/ATE 1990:16). The QUT Project Team saw the balance more as professional development through their Component 1 with the year at QUT as part of the UPNG BEd (academic) and national and regional adjunct workshops/courses (professional). In actual fact, the QUT 1991-1994 Project cut across the stage PNG was at in the in-country college curriculum development, yet surprisingly, the NDOE was required to fund excesses since it was said to be a commitment in a government (PNG) to government (Australia) agreement. The QUT staff used strategies trying to be useful to the PNG college staff. Comprehensive papers to explain their theoretical orientation (Burke 1991; Elliott 1992) were written by QUT staff for a UPNG forum. They anticipated NDOE would operationalise and fund their requirements. They were unwilling or unable to adjust anything except a date or a situation when they saw staff level of content knowledge, as in Mathematics and Science (Lucas et al 1993). Divisional curriculum workshop funding was depleted, but the SDU came to the rescue, repeatedly borrowing from other divisions, which in turn had their own priorities and objections.

The same college staff were also wanted by the Standards Division to attend Curriculum Unit writing workshops for Reform primary school materials. Principals complained to the SD&TD (TED), unable to cope with constant withdrawal of their staff for weeks at a time. However, with uneasy compromises and alarming costs, by the end of 1993 staff had continued with QUT in-country courses and PNG commitments. Staff also participated in three ST&TD Strand workshops in parallel activities and SD&TD

produced, somewhat irregularly and comparatively poorly, a first draft of *Subject Content Guidelines* (Ministry 1992, 1993) for the Diploma requested by NTEBS. Many ATE-accepted submissions were generating questions about content expansion. To produce these content guidelines ('core curriculum') as support to the ATE/NEB document, there were 140 national teacher education staff listed as contributors with 40 in-country and overseas resource personnel. Also in the introduction of the first composite document (Ministry 1993), the Minister quoted the Education Act Section 27 and reminded all staff that it was he who was the one legally responsible for curriculum in all schools, including teachers colleges in the National Education System. Public servants and the colleges were not yet part of a university and the Secretary was still responsible for standards.

The National Teacher Education Board of Studies

The National Teacher Education Board of Studies (NTEBS) was established in 1986, with its broadly representative membership and functions determined by statutory Document No 2 1986 and Statutory Document amendment of 1987. *National* level Boards of Studies for Primary, Technical and Secondary level already operated. There was a Teacher Education Committee (TEC) which reported to the National Education Board (NEB), but the Minister pointed out that the TEC had Operations tasks (see Appendix 7.8). He wanted to be informed also about teacher education Curriculum. (College level Boards of Studies were renamed AAC.) While all the aforementioned curriculum developments were taking place between 1987 and 1993, the NTEBS kept to its regular bi-annual meetings except in 1989. Study of the agenda and minutes of sixteen NTEBS meetings, indicate the meetings dealt significantly with the content details of college programmes. For those years, between 1994 and 1996, no meetings were recorded.

The minutes (1990-1991) reveal that the members of the NTEBS reaffirmed a wish to give advice and be informed about college curriculum matters. The discussions again clarified the difference between the roles of the TEC and NTEBS both of which functioned on behalf of all the colleges. The TEC reported to the NEB and the NTEBS to the Minister. There was also concern expressed about the on-going role of ATE and the Chairman (normally Deputy Secretary) asked to be included in communications (see Appendix 7.9 (a) (b). The NTEBS accepted the revised *National Objectives* (NDOE 1989) for the certificate programmes and accepted what the NEB *ad hoc* committee ATE was doing, but then saw that staff needed more assistance than the brief ATE framework.

They asked for National Content Guidelines to be produced as an adjunct to the ATE framework. TED was therefore attempting to produce what was seen as a 'core' curriculum for ATE and as National Content Guidelines for NTEBS. Unesco was interested in the output (Appendix 7.10). Ten documents were approved up until the end of 1993 although the Strand concept, except for the Professional Development Strand, was left to individual colleges to integrate. The NTEBS had been somewhat overlooked with regard to setting new policy directions, it was at first overshadowed rather than included by ATE, working directly to the NEB, and could have been brought into the tension with Australian aid or QUT since its requests were effected, but evidently was not.

The New Three-Year Pre-Service Primary Diploma

What was new about the Diploma? The college staff were told by the Secretary that they were to produce 'a new kind of teacher'. They each had a copy of the document which was the starting point (NEB/ATE 1990). New to the terminology was 'strand' which assumed more integration across subject departments, and consequently more on-going planning, teaching and re-evaluating amongst lecturers in a particular combination of subjects. The processing of what was termed there the programme 'revision' had been set down in four steps and the purpose and guiding principles listed (Appendix 7.5). The processing of the SD&TD workshops for a 'core curriculum' had been interrupted by the timing and orientation of Australian aid. The NTEBS had asked for (National) Content Guidelines to be prepared which were completed drafts by the end of 1993 (Appendix 7.7). The work in the classrooms of the colleges was the result of staff trying to put all the new ideas together, and this implementation is studied in Chapter Eight. Plate 7.3 indicates a new staff member with his students.

CONCLUSION

Answering the question, what has constituted pre-service programmes through the years, leads to reflection on the costly international and procedural interventions, particularly how it related to the implementation of the Diploma programme. From the 1940s, each 'training centre's' 'course' was unique and transient. The programmes implemented as part of institution-building after 1970 until the new Diploma of the 1990s, demonstrated that each college took pride in its own identity. This included such aspects as history, ethos, physical and social environment, assessment systems, private funding sources and

degree of leadership from Governing Councils. Dr Farrell had posited for the 1970s, '... how different can colleges be from one another and still be preparing teachers for a common system and for a country with unified national aspirations?' (DOE 1973:5). A general statement about what college programmes had in common, would include such issues as commitment of staff, a heavy workload for both staff and students, co-educational residential institutions with no separate administrative or welfare staffing, lack of sufficient appropriate instructional materials and references, lack of sufficient staff specialisation, attempting to implement the PNG philosophy of education and to make courses relevant, conflicts about staffing in both the library and demonstration schools, active involvement with surrounding village communities, increasingly speedy changes in college staff and a great deal of constructive valuable course-work despite all the challenges. Some of the most pressing common gaps impinging on programmes during the early 1990s included:

Student Intake Standards for Programmes: Students excel in many ways. Once in the community on practice teaching it was clear they had skills and confidence in their own environment. In the use of English, reading comprehension and the new curricula, strong teaching strategies were required of the lecturer to catch-up on gaps in the student teachers' previous learning.

Staff Workload in Residential Colleges: Both students and staff were rostered for residential duties. The policy of college staff being *in loco parentis* and carrying out administrative and welfare tasks after teaching hours was a commitment to the 'all-round' development of student-teachers and consistent with the national philosophy of education. It could encroach on other professional and academic teaching duties, such as preparation of new materials for the Diploma.

Teaching Materials and Aids: Another aspect in common was the lack of teacher education text books and references and cramming instructional materials. While many of the curriculum unit productions for community and secondary schools were continuously excellent and relevant for Papua New Guinean children and could be used in some ways for student-teachers, adequate numbers were never sustained in college libraries. Lecturers wanted to have their students do research for themselves and to teach content at a higher level. Although useful material had been prepared by lecturers over the years, this was not preserved or widely accessible. Making such valuable work available for

staff to choose from was an envisaged National Institute of Teacher Education task. Sharing would save time and increase the spread of relevant ideas.

Outside Overseas Assistance: The practice of expecting colleges to welcome all visitors and allowing them to interview staff led to misunderstandings and misrepresentations. It could be asked if the institutions from which visitors came would be equally as generous,

Plate 7.3: Mr J Hamau, English Language Lecturer with his Student Teachers 1991

open and tolerant of similar scrutiny. Reports, for example, recommended curriculum assistance, which led to written structures, then the next visitor stated that more flexibility was needed. The time required to listen to indigenous staff, understand what was meant in their own terms and find ways to interact on it, was rarely available. Constant criticism from outsiders also leads to rejection. Outsiders do not always know what is best for PNG college programmes. The next chapter, Chapter Eight, introduces Research Question 4 commencing with college classroom data.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WAS THE THREE-YEAR DIPLOMA PROGRAMME, AS IMPLEMENTED BY STAFF OF COLLEGES BETWEEN 1990/1991 AND 1993, CONGRUENT WITH POLICY OBJECTIVES?

INTRODUCTION

In following the development of primary teacher education in Papua New Guinea (PNG), the features traced in this thesis included: the historical and political beginnings of formal modern schooling (Chapter Two); the gradually changing attitudes of Australia to indigenous PNG people and their education after 1946 and the teacher education pioneers in small centres, through to consolidation and the building-up of colleges. Integral to this and the following chapters, as government demonstrated more leadership in education, are the policies which guided progress (Chapter Five); the beginnings and acceleration of the preparation of indigenous people to replace expatriates as college staff members (Chapter Six), and the teacher education programmes for student-teachers through the years including the decision in 1990 to finally introduce a new three-year Diploma (Chapter Seven). With these perspectives as context for the reader, Chapter Eight now turns the spotlight on the situation of the lecturers implementing the new Diploma. Their classrooms were illuminated through evidence collected in Diploma projects spread over the years 1991 to 1993 inclusive. Implementation by the staff was used also to answer whether or not the programme was congruent with orginal policy objectives.

The Diploma implementation projects carried out in PNG for this research are listed to remind the reader from where data to be used in Chapter Eight were generated:

Project I The Implementation of the First Year of the Diploma in Teaching (Primary), PNG 1991

Part (A) - The Classroom Situation of College Lecturers During 1991

Observation and Discussions with 19 individual staff in classrooms at six of the nine provincial teachers' colleges during 1991.

Part (B) - The Contributions of the Principals and Deputy Principals to the Diploma

Implementation in 1991

Feedback from 20 principals and deputy principals of the colleges in a conference session at the end of 1991.

Project II A Content Analysis of Staff Inspection Reports for the Three Years 1991, 1992 and 1993

An analysis of 78 inspectors' college staff performance documents for 1991, 1992 and 1993.

Project III A Survey of Lecturer Experience and Opinion of the PNG Diploma in Teaching (Primary), November 1993

An analysis of responses from 52 of the 93 college staff about their reflections on preparation for and teaching of the first three years of the new Diploma as at the end of 1993.

The fourth of the study's research questions, ***Was the three-year Diploma programme as implemented by staff of colleges between 1990/1991 and 1993, congruent with policy objectives?*** is pursued in this chapter, with the data generated through the work of the lecturers, many of whom themselves were recently student-lecturers (Chapter Six). The total college academic staff comprised 70 percent Papua New Guineans in 1990. They were in colleges as Principal, Deputy Principal, Senior Lecturer and Lecturer. This percentage was planned to continue to increase annually towards full localisation (Chapter Six). A three-year Diploma programme in 1991 was at a time of national and college level co-ordination changes and beginnings of school system reforms (Chapter One). The three projects in this chapter are focussed mainly on the college lecturers. They were the ones working closest with internal and external changes: with their student-teachers for whom changes, as teachers in the field, were the ultimate target, with communities such as college colleagues and professional committees and with the national system, curriculum groups and individuals (Chapter Seven). The intention is neither to evaluate the lecturers nor their work but to describe their situation and to quote their perspective; i.e., what they do and say. This established 'the implementation' sought. Papua New Guinean orientated teacher education insights were the outcome.

PROJECT I THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FIRST YEAR OF THE DIPLOMA IN TEACHING (PRIMARY), PNG 1991

PART (A) - THE CLASSROOM SITUATION OF COLLEGE LECTURERS DURING 1991

Introduction

This project was conducted throughout 1991, the first year of the Diploma programme, and hinges in part, on the staff having been involved in preliminary activities from September 1990, after the National Education Board (NEB) established an *ad hoc* committee, the Association of Teacher Education (ATE). It was then that the Diploma planning began: writing a common framework, and unique programmes and courses in each of the colleges. This was supervised by the chairperson of the ATE. From the data collected during the subsequent visits to the colleges for this project, a picture was built up, by the college staff, of their own implementation in 1991.

The following sequence of results flows from observation and discussions during the visits. Initially, there was no pre-conceived set of questions, but interest shown in the staff efforts brought responses, which lead over the year to more regularised interview questions (Appendix 4.1). Typically, staff wanted to talk about the *classroom job*, leading next to how they *interacted with others involved* with similar work and finally, to issues of what was *of concern or new*. The sample were all nationals and consisted of 12 senior and seven junior staff members, four of whom were female, across six colleges.

Lecturers' Involvement in the Preparation Activities - Interview Questions 1-3

During visits to the lecturer it was observed the immediate attention of the staff member was on what the job required. The view was of a lecturer who was trying to understand and fit into a whole college programme, with a need for an endorsed subject course outline, and as a lecturer who must consider content for preparing the weekly lectures and contact with students. Those pivotal factors, shown in tabular form in Table 8.1, were used to begin to collect and assemble data for this study.

TABLE 8.1
STAFF INVOLVEMENT IN THE PREPARATION ACTIVITIES IDENTIFIED AS PIVOTAL FACTORS

PREPARATION ACTIVITIES	STAFF INVOLVEMENT (N=19)			
	YES	%	NO	%
Whole College Programme	11	58	8	42
Subject Course Outline	7	37	12	63
Own Lecture Content	15	78	4	22

Preparation Activities

While 11 of a total of 19 staff had been involved in developing the whole programme for the college in which they were implementing the first year of teaching the Diploma in 1991, and seven of a total of 19 staff were involved in producing the course outline for submission to the Association of Teacher Education (ATE), 15 of the 19 staff were trying to prepare and teach their own lecture materials week by week.

Lecturers explained that if they did not have an in-depth understanding of the structure and sequence of the whole college programme and the scope of their own subject's course outline, difficulties arose when trying to prepare their own lecture content.

Lecturers' Interaction With Others - Interview Questions 4-6

Next, how lecturers interacted with others is considered under the areas of helpfulness of national workshops (see Table 8.2), lecturers' perceptions of their own work and working together within a college.

TABLE 8.2
STAFF PERCEPTIONS OF HELPFULNESS OF NATIONAL WORKSHOPS

National Workshops. Eleven of sample (N=19) attended in 1990-1991. Sub-sample (n=11)	
Helpful for developing:	Multiple Responses *
◦ Whole College Programme	1 staff member
• Subject Course Outline	5 staff members
• Own Lecture Content	8 staff members
- Own Professional Development and/or	7 staff members
- Some small way mentioned	2 staff members

* Staff were helped in more than one way. Therefore, multiple responses total more than 11.

National Workshops

Only 11 of the sample interviewed (N=19) had already had their turn to be invited to a national level workshop in late-1990 or 1991. Of the 11, eight reported they found the workshop they attended helpful for their own lecture content. The Annual workshop schedule co-ordinated by TED showed the remaining eight staff would have at least one invitation to a centrally organised workshop during 1992 or 1993.

The statement on workshops in the new Diploma document was as follows:

> As substantial changes in content and approach are expected in some areas for which there will be need of consultation among colleges and with specialists in the field, it was agreed that the Association of Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Division organise at least two workshops this year and more during 1991 to develop the core curriculum.
>
> (NEB/ATE 1990:16)

The Community Development workshop in early 1991 assisted with writing both the programme and subject course outline although the QUT (Australian aid) stated intention was 'principles of curriculum development and pedagogical skills' (APC 1990). Co-operation between NDOE and QUT on this occasion resulted in selection of participants whose task was the preparation of the newly created Community Development strand and the workshop was skewed to PNG perceived PNG priorities.

Perceptions of Their Own Work

Six lecturers of the sample (N=19) expressed satisfaction with the Diploma implementation in their college but also stated there was a lack of resources, assistance and leadership, while the other 13 lecturers mentioned concerns indicating lack of co-ordination, confusion about new content and work-load.

In contrast to the question presented, which asked for staff perceptions about their own implementation, staff concerns about co-ordination and confusion were expressed about colleagues, especially the issue of overload and the lack of help with the scope of subjects new to the person. The colleges were single purpose institutions and most were in rural areas, therefore working together with colleagues was integral to many operational matters.

Internal College Assistance

Sixteen of the sample (N=19) were in colleges where weekly subject or department meetings were timetabled. Ten had regular general staff meetings timetabled. Grouping departments into strands was part of the proposed structure recommended in the new Diploma policy document as follows:

> There will be five curricular strands: Language Development, Mathematics and Science, Spiritual and Social Development, Community Development, and Professional Development. The strands are roughly described ... in terms of the reasons for each particular strand, their objectives, the subjects or subject-areas included and within these the specific knowledge content, skills and attitudes to be fostered.
>
> (NEB/ATE 1990:3)

Despite the fact that strand meetings were not specifically scheduled by college administration, 10 of the staff sample (N=19) said they had had regular meetings with colleagues within a new strand and six of the sample (N=19) said they had meetings of staff between strands. Some staff were in more than one category. While there was no clear indication of when these meetings occurred, 10 staff of the total sample said that they had approached colleagues themselves on an informal basis to discuss teaching matters.

Changes in Teaching and Assessment Methods and Curriculum Issues Observed - Interview Questions 7, 8 and 9

Issues that were new or of concern were discussed and included changes in teaching methods, and changes in student assessment methods; general observations were added.

Tertiary Teaching Styles

Fourteen of the sample (N=19) had ideas for improving their tertiary teaching listing constructive activities, while the other five claimed methods were already adequate. Their combined contributions suggested more than 40 kinds of teaching ideas.

Examples of what lecturers attempted for students and themselves were:

activities to enable students:

- *more 'independent' learning*

- *opportunity for 'deeper thinking'*
- *use 'reflective conferencing'*
- *more 'research in library'*
- *more 'community projects'*
- *more 'articulating' own ideas*
- *use increased 'time' to study in and outside the class*

activities as a lecturer:

- *preparing a clear statement of objective and criteria for assessment and giving this to the students at commencement of the unit of study*
- *researching a longer lecture paper and presenting to students over the weeks*

The remaining five of the staff of the total sample (N=19) claimed they were already innovative with their two-year Certificate students. Examples were:

activities as a lecturer:

- *already challenging in style and aware students are young adults*
- *making use of local material and caring for equipment*
- *doing the same but doing it better*
- *just responding to needs of students*

Student Assessment Practices in Colleges

All staff indicated they were thinking and talking about assessment change issues, e.g., number of assessment periods in the year; number of tasks for assessment period; weighting between term work and end examination.

Twelve staff members of those visited (N=19) gave examples of planned change in student assessment. Many of their ideas related to the college's Governing Council academic assessment system. Those staff who were less sure of changes that were required, raised questions about an anticipated ATE publication on assessment. It was known that ATE had required the 'Mode of Assessment' (NEB/ATE 1990:15) for each unit included in the original programme submission, that 'a credit point system be established' (NEB/ATE 1990:14) and that a note on Assessment stated -

> Comparable assessment mechanism across colleges for the core syllabus and for practise teaching and suitability to be a teacher. Passing grades will be ABCD and Fail, and professional suitability will be Pass/Fail.
>
> (NEB/ATE 1990:16)

A selection of verbatim statements from those staff who raised assessment included:

- *still trying to work out the ATE point system*
- *criteria for assessment always been clear in our college*

- *after another national workshop ours will be changed*
- *subject Health needs more time, not more testing*

A selection of the new assessment methods demonstrated by the lecturers included:

- *fewer exams each term and more student self assessment*
- *trying to lift standards by applying college system firmly*
- *more weight on semester assignments and less on exams because "PNG students worry"*
- *fewer demonstration lessons, time used for deep discussion*
- *no basic skills external exams, now means a lot of worksheet preparation and marking and time spent with individuals on remedial work*

Other Curriculum Issues

The visits to college classrooms allowed these selected observations:

Resources: Libraries need more relevant references for both students and staff and multiple copies of some useful texts; all levels of staff hesitant about their role in Diploma implementation; out-of-date school material could be adapted for practical use.

Staff: Generally very tolerant with students, but can be severe; welcome visitors willing to listen to their professional ideas and questions

Students: The students are grade 10 entrants from Provincial High schools, not grade 12 students from the National High schools

Administration: Some overseas 'developers' remained in the position in 1991 and others had prepared counterpart; variations in degree of internal 'readiness' for Diploma; a changing work environment as indigenous staff numbers increased.

A sample of the data recorded is in Appendix 8.1.

Discussion: The Classroom Situation of College Lecturers During 1991

During the first year of the Diploma implementation most lecturers were preparing each week what, and how, they would teach in their own contact time. However, one of the aspects making it difficult for them to prepare their work was not having a clear understanding of the whole programme for the college nor even of their own course

outline which was often brief. Besides the scope, the sequence of the three-year structure, was one of several initial issues about the new programme and, consequently, course outlines. For example, each college decided whether 'subject knowledge' in the framework diagram (NEB/ATE 1990:15) for the first year was at community school Grade 6 level, thus perhaps using the earlier English and Mathematics Basic Skills remedial teaching materials prepared in workshops, or was at Grade 12 matriculation level, thus making use of UPNG provincial extension centre papers. A related issue was the level of the whole Diploma programme, initially conceived as being university-endorsed. While the university staff hired by the ATE to check the college submissions in 1990 and 1991, may have been flexible, it was not widely known at the earlier stage that there would be almost no Grade 12 applicants for the 1991 intake.

Given the logistics and content, the national central workshops in 1990 and 1991 had assisted a little more than half of the lecturers in the sample with their immediate tasks. A bigger impact was anticipated. The Community Development Strand workshop in early 1991 was said by college lecturers to be the most helpful. In contrast, some of the other QUT courses presented in workshops were not so college curriculum orientated and this may have been the major factor in their limited immediate use to lecturers. Most lecturers found that the college implementation lacked new college teaching resources or assistance. They were over-loaded and confused about content despite the prior assistance from college-based developers and ATE. There was a 'subject culture' where communicating across colleges, especially immediately after workshops, to familiar subject colleagues in the vocabulary of the discipline was easier than integrative communication within an institution. The college Administration formally timetabled a common slot for at least one weekly professional meeting, and perhaps one operations general meeting. However, there appeared to be little internal pressure for regular meetings of departments together in a new strand formation, to continue the difficult task of lecturers communicating about subjects which they knew little about for planning, integrating, 'not overlapping', preparing materials, teaching and evaluating.

All lecturers had ideas and activities for improving classroom tertiary teaching styles, including enabling students to be more self-reliant, reflective and articulate and for deeper thinking, research in the library and time to study. Although they had not anticipated the consequent additional marking. Lecturers favoured more weight on these term assignments, than on exams. Colleges included sections on assessment in their

submissions to ATE, but college changes by the Governing Council or what ATE wanted regarding a credit point system, were unclear to lecturers in 1991. Another national workshop on assessment was anticipated, the ATE intended 'comparable assessment systems across colleges', but colleges, however, identified with their own.

With the poverty of libraries and staff often not confident to adapt materials resources lagged. Where lecturers had a clearer idea of what the 'new' was supposed to be, as in changed teaching method or 'style' they emphasised similar which they were already doing or adaptations. This was rather than major content changes in 1991. Students remained the same kind of Grade 10 entrants as were concurrently completing the final year of the Certificate programme and five colleges were working with a different Diploma developer in 1991 to the one in 1990.

PART (B) - THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PRINCIPALS AND DEPUTY PRINCIPALS TO THE DIPLOMA IMPLEMENTATION DURING 1991

Introduction

This project was a survey of principals and deputy principals in a session at the Annual Principals Conference (APC) in October 1991. There were 20 participants (five expatriate and five PNG principals and 10 PNG deputy principals). Discussing *the three questions* (Appendix 4.2) in four groups comprising representatives of different colleges, and recording their findings on charts, they verbally reported their charts back to the whole conference. Their submissions were then pooled as their own joint overview of the suggested organisational changes for implementation of the new Diploma 1991-1993 (see Appendix 8.2).

Links Made by the Administrators' Responses Between Certificate Graduands' Deficiencies, Additional Offerings Planned and Administrative Changes

Links are shown in Table 8.3 between graduands' 'deficiencies' asked for in Question 3 and planned 'additional strengths' asked for in Question 1. Research skills was not included as a planned additional offering, although listed by principals and deputy principals as a deficiency. While Skills and Attitudes were listed in this session as 'new' or 'additional', some of these items were residual or retained aspects in that they were already, when the survey was made in October 1991, in the Certificate programmes and

TABLE 8.3 - ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS OF DIPLOMA OFFERINGS TO OVERCOME CERTIFICATE DEFICIENCIES (OCTOBER 1991)

Q1: → Diploma Offerings Planned ↓	**Knowledge →**	**Skills →**	**Attitudes**	**Q3: Certificate Graduands Deficiencies (1991) ↓**
Professional	• more concepts • more learning principles • cognitive and developmental principles •/ awareness of integrations • practical application	• teaching to individual needs • learning needs analysis • multi-grade teaching • integration planning • special (needs) education • integration of knowledge and practice	• concern for total development of child • more innovations • flexible teaching approaches • see teacher as 'helper'	•/ lacking subject content •/ lacking holistic view • *lacking research skills* •/ lacking balance between content and method (in programme) Q2 links
Personal	•/ subjects strengthened •/ in-depth understanding •/ higher academic level required	• problem solving • self-discipline and teaching this to others • thinking as a 'national' • independent student • identifying own learning priorities • advanced social/personal skills	• 'own' the problems and achievements encountered •/ self direction •/ responsibility • independence and initiative •/ more mature behaviour •/ tolerance and confidence	•/ not matriculants •/ lacking in leadership skills and in •/ maturity and personal development •/ not making productive use of time Q2 links •/ poor attitudes •/ poor English
Community	• interest in cultural diversity •/ law and order action (security)	• developing community skills	• promote community co-operation • flexibility and sensitivity	•/ not coping with insecurity (of field)

Notes: The oblique marks (/) indicate a link between Certificate graduands' identified deficiencies and Diploma offerings planned in the new programme, from the perspective of Principals and Deputy Principals. The only one deficiency not included in this overview is 'lacking research skills'.

were not highlighted as 'deficiencies' by the administrators.

The 'administrative' changes in Table 8.4 provided support towards the successful implementation of the Diploma. Organisational changes under the three headings, namely; timetable, assessment and staff (action), gave indication that in some issues administrators may concur with results of the interviews and observations with staff in Part (A) findings, e.g., need for assessment policy review, co-ordination of the whole programme and more private study for students.

TABLE 8.4 - COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS' ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES

Q2: *In 1991 my staff and I have changed the administration of our programme, to implement these intentions (from question 1) in the following ways.*

Responses given by Principals (N=10) and Deputy Principals (N=10) to Q2 regarding administrative changes to their college programmes in 1991

TIMETABLE CHANGES
- refocus programme structure (Q3) lacking balance between content and method
- longer and fewer lectures
- more private study time for students
- study skills course early in the year (Q3) not making productive use of time
- reduction of number of units within subjects

ASSESSMENT CHANGES
- assessment policy (global) review
- more skills in designing assessment tasks
- more cognitive learning tested
- require higher standards of work tested
- test application of learning

STAFF STRATEGY CHANGES
- increase demand for quality teaching and learning
- develop new teaching styles
- avoid overlapping of content
- integration of experiences for students

The deficiencies the administrators listed about their up-coming Certificate graduands were significant because of the recency of contact with those students. They wanted a better academic level, a person who would act more independently and be more sensitive to children than the current graduands.

Discussion: The Contributions of the Administrators to the Diploma During 1991

The collective responses from Administrators to three questions about additional strengths offered in the new college programmes, administrative changes for the Diploma and observable deficiencies of Certificate graduands to be overcome by the new Diploma, gave a joint perspective whereas colleges were functioning separately. Data is therefore showing trends rather than the actual scene in any particular institution.

The Administrators were principals and deputy principals and principals were members of the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) with whom university staff were still processing parts of a college's programme submission. The Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes to be taught in each college's programme gave an indication of planning already completed and submitted. Although the exercise was a spontaneously written brief outcome for a shared chart the outcome did indicate significant trends.

Administrators perceived their current practical contribution to be through Timetable, Assessment and Staff (method or style) changes, each of which would require action, and attitudinal adaptations within their own college to bring about the changes. The two-year Certificate graduands were presented by the administrators as having too many deficiencies. This could be interpreted as the colleges feeling they had failed those Certificate students. On the other hand, they may have linked it with the entrance level of Grade 10 and facility with English language not being adequate for tertiary courses.

Research skills were nominated as a Certificate graduand weakness, although in some colleges it was a unit in Social Science (see Chapter Seven). If Diploma students were to work more independently and make better use of the library and be less dependent on their lecturers, these skills (and appropriate materials) were helpful. It may have been included in the new programme, in an 'earlier study skills course' as they suggested.

Administrators and their staff views, recorded in Part (A), concurred on both need for assessment policy review, and more assignment (or study) time for students. Although the staff seemed more aware of the need for programme co-ordination and integration these were mentioned by administrators as a student need, but not for staff and the programme itself.

PROJECT II - A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF STAFF INSPECTION REPORTS FOR 1991, 1992 AND 1993

Introduction

For this project, key themes were identified from data collected in 1991, then used as a guide to make a methodical examination of a collection of formal staff report documents for the years 1991, 1992 and 1993. The themes reflect the situation expressed by the lecturers during 1991 and group around 'ownership', 'openness' and a 'new kind of teacher', described as follows.

OWNERSHIP: was when the staff member was clearly informed about the teaching task and in control of where he was heading with his own lecture preparation. It was observed that this was supported by being 'involved' with the decision making and structuring of the submission of the original programme in the current college and having been responsible for, or a party to, the thinking and content of the staff member's own subject course outline. Associated with this was the coincidence of 'continuity' of service at the same college.

OPENNESS: is characterised by demonstrated enthusiasm, energy and willingness to admit difficulties or reveal new ideas and questions. This also involved sharing the in-college Diploma development and implementation with others, whether seeking assistance or feeling confident enough to give assistance. This flowed from an open professional disposition to action with student-teachers.

'A NEW KIND OF TEACHER': was a phrase commonly used by staff during 1991. In fact, this was a term used by the Secretary for Education, Mr J Tetaga (1989) and quoted in local literature. It was used by him in a general way to indicate a 'change' required of teachers in the field. It was taken up by others and interpreted freely. An example given of what this meant in colleges, was that student-teacher should be encouraged to learn independently, not be 'spoon-fed' by their lecturers and at the same time the lecturers should be more 'student-centred'. The notion is this would help graduates be the 'new kind of teacher'. A major new paradigm was nor promulgated.

The Documents

The sample of documents for Project II consisted of official staff reports (see Appendix 4.4). Inspectors, their senior officers and representatives in legally convened committees in each of the three years followed the guidelines of the National Department of Education's annual inspection system. The 78 reports used for this study in 1994 were written over three years in the following sequence: 1991, 17 reports; 1992, 18 reports and in 1993, 43 reports (see samples of those reports Appendix 8.3).

The content analysis involved applying criteria in a 'template' (see Appendix 4.3), which comprised three themes and a set of connected issues. The numbers 1 to 8 in the template list themes which grew from Project I in 1991.

Each year's documents were examined as a set carefully and recorded separately. Table 8.5 shows the three years together for each of the involvement activities related to ownership, i.e., original programme, course outline and content.

Theme: Ownership

TABLE 8.5
OWNERSHIP: FORMAL PERFORMANCE REPORTS FOR 1991, 1992 AND 1993

		1991		1992		1993	
		5 Colleges N=17 reports - Yr 1 Diploma		6 Colleges N=18 reports - Yrs 1 and 2 Diploma		10 Colleges N=43 reports - Yrs 1, 2 and 3 Diploma	
	Ownership of		%		%		%
1	Original Programme	6	35	6	33	10	23
2	Course Outline	8	47	10	56	26	61
3	Content	17	100	13	72	39	91

1. Involvement in Original College Programme

In summary, the number of staff who had conceptualised the original Diploma submission to ATE in their current college decreased over the three years from six (N=17) to 10 (N=43) (i.e., by 12 percent) (see Table 8.5).

2. Involvement in Writing College Subject Outlines

The original course outlines were written in their current colleges by eight staff in 1991 (N=17), 10 staff in 1992 (N=18), and 26 staff in 1993 (N=43) respectively. The number involved showed an increase over the three years. According to the PNG Teaching Service duty statements, this work was the responsibility of a senior lecturer or a head of department. A person may not have been involved in construction of a whole programme but may have been requested in the college to follow-up with amending or creating a more detailed course outline as a senior lecturer or responsible lecturer.

3. Involvement in Writing Lecture Content

All the staff in the sample (N=17) were preparing lecture materials during the first year of the Diploma implementation, this number decreased in the second year 13 (N=18) and increased in the third year 39 (N=43) (see Table 8.5).

Theme: Openness

TABLE 8.6
OPENNESS: FORMAL PERFORMANCE REPORTS FOR 1991, 1992 AND 1993

		1991		**1992**		**1993**	
		5 Colleges N=17 staff - Yr 1 Diploma		**6 Colleges N=18 staff - Yr 2 Diploma**		**10 Colleges N=43 staff - Yr 3 Diploma**	
	Openness in		%		%		%
4	External Interaction	13	77	14	78	38	88
5	Classroom	17	100	15	83	35	81
6	Internal Cooperation	7	41	10	56	33	77

4. Change and Development Through External Professional Contacts

The staff sample were interacting with external professional people via workshops; by follow-up, facsimile and visits of outsiders. This increased by 10 percent over the three years, 13 (N=17), 14 (N=18) and 38 (N=43) (see Table 8.6).

In summary, over the 3 years period, staff involvement with external interaction or outside the college, professional people, increased by 10 percent.

5. Change and Development Evidenced by Lecturer Action

All the staff sample (N=17) attempted appropriate approaches or changes in the lecture room in the first year of implementation, this is reported to have declined in the second year 15 (N=18) and maintained that level 35 (N=43) into the third year (see Table 8.6).

Examples of Approaches Inspectors Found Appropriate

Inspector's Comments to Lecturers, i.e., you (do already)

- *articulate and transmit in class a vital interest in your specialist subject*
- *have an encouraging manner with students drawing them out*
- *have good formal liaison with students, schools and villagers*
- *listen well to students, thoughtfully responding with slow deliberate opinions*
- *are organised and business-like; records give view of student progress*
- *adapt plentiful old school texts for use in classes*
- *link available library resources with subject needs*
- *have plenty of student projects completed and underway*
- *are 'doing a little well' according to the PNG philosophy of education*
- *use humour, brain-storming and group activities*

In summary, there was a range of classroom approaches over these three years in which, as shown in Table 8.7, the openness of staff, as indicated by formal performance reports, declined in 1992 and 1993. However, the large majority of staff over the three years were reported to have attempted approaches reported by inspectors as appropriate classroom interaction with their student-teachers.

6. Change and Development Through Articulation of Ideas Within the College

In 1991 seven of the staff sample (N=17) are reported to have initiated college cooperation and this increased over the next two years 10 (N=18) and 33 (N=43) (see Table 8.6).

In summary, during the first year fewer than half of the sample were reported to be initiating discussion of courses within the college; but by the end of the third year three

quarters of staff were willing to consult with colleagues.

Theme: A New Kind of Teacher

TABLE 8.7
NEW KIND OF TEACHER: FORMAL PERFORMANCE REPORTS FOR 1991, 1992 AND 1993

		1991		1992		1993	
		5 Colleges N=17 staff - Yr 1 Diploma		6 Colleges N=18 staff - Yr 2 Diploma		10 Colleges N=43 staff - Yr 3 Diploma	
	New Kind of Teacher		%		%		%
7	Reading TERP* reports	2	12	2	11	1	2
8	Independent - learners	17	100	15	83	32	72

* Teacher Education Research Project (1987-1989)

7. Indication of Staff Knowledge of Changes for Diploma Through TERP Reports

Very few staff had read any of the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) reports over the three years, i.e., 1991, two (N=17), 1992, two (N=18) and 1993, one (N=43). These were the outcome of major PNG teacher education research which had been designed as preparation for the Diploma introduction, and were public documents (see Table 8.7).

8. Opportunities for 'Independent-Learners' and Tertiary Teaching Strategies

All the staff sample (N=17) attempted opportunities for their student-teachers to be 'independent learners' and taught in a 'student-centred' manner in the first year of the Diploma. This declined in the second and the third year, i.e., 15 (N=18) and 32 (N=43) (see Table 8.7).

Examples of classroom activities *written in the inspectors' reports* are numerous in each document, but the following are a selection pertinent to the focus of this question: Independent Learners and Tertiary Teaching Strategies.

(i) lecturer enabling (deliberately thinking up and creating) ways for students to be 'independent-learners', carried out by the students usually in the student-teacher's

own time often outside the classroom.

- *students following manual to mark village school athletics track and using chalkboard skills self-paced handbook*
- *food garden planning and honesty system (caring for products)*
- *clear criteria for activity, students can check each other*
- *listen to radio news and write report for presentation*
- *responsibility for tools, lighting plant, animal survival*
- *screen-printing T-shirts for town contracts*
- *constructing low-cost science teaching kits*
- *using an audio tape-recorder to record local music and stories*

(ii) lecturer teaching during contact time, in a 'student-centred' manner with a focus on student needs and a willingness to spend time drawing out the student's understandings

- *catering for individuals including older students*
- *offering practical experience of choosing among options*
- *commitment to improvement of a student's use of English*
- *quiet style permits students to speak without fear or pressure*
- *ensure sufficient sharing of limited items and aids*

An examination of the documents gives examples of what was being attempted as indication of student orientated learning. There was a decreasing percentage of staff making students 'independent-learners', but only one staff member out of the sample was reported as 'not willing to put enough effort into planning and preparation'.

Discussion: Analysis of Staff Inspection Reports 1991, 1992 and 1993

The 78 inspection reports, written for the work of staff teaching in the colleges during the three years of the first Diploma cohort, represent about one third of the staff employed over that time. The analysis offered another view of what was happening in the student-teacher/lecturer classroom interaction.

The number of staff at a college who were involved in creating the original ATE

programme for that particular college gradually decreased as a result of staff mobility, whilst those involved with course outline preparation increased markedly over the three years. Some staff saw a need to adjust expectations of students from year to year due to the nature of the evolving programme.

'Ownership', 'Openness' and 'A new kind of teacher' were themes used to analyse the inspectors' reports. All staff in the samples were involved in preparing their own teaching materials in the first year, this declined in the second year and increased again in the third year, the third year being the first time ever that staff taught a third year group despite already having done some preparation for teaching third year units.

Openness of staff to work with external professional staff either at workshops or by communicating with colleagues increased over the three years and was higher than internal communication which, while increased by 31 percent, was still ten percent lower than openness with outside colleagues. The possible impact of this on the programme was to take longer to get programme cohesion and the students needing to make the connections across subjects and strands. It may have indicated fewer internal resources, lack of confidence or shortage of time for co-ordination meetings.

Teaching styles or changes in the lecture-room included encouragement of student-teachers and use of materials and approaches inspectors found appropriate. Although down from a one hundred percent effort in the first year, teaching styles in subsequent years were reported as remaining a strong characteristic as were constructive staff attitudes to their students.

There had been earlier discussions about an extended programme and the national Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) reports spanned three years, 1987-1989, but it was discovered teaching staff had not read those research reports, for whom they were ultimately written. Nor had they thought about them as being helpful in the preparation for the Diploma. It is not known whether copies were not distributed by principals to national staff, not printed in sufficient numbers to go around or whether they were freely available to lecturers who were not interested, unable or too busy to read them. Research projects and literature in which indigenous staff had been involved in the past were minimal and it was anticipated by TED that indigenous lecturer interest would be high.

All staff inspected in 1991 gave student-teachers opportunities to be 'independent learners' and taught in a 'student-centred' manner but these approaches were reported by inspectors to have declined somewhat in the second and third years, although these characteristics remained one of the strongest teaching elements.

PROJECT III - A QUESTIONNAIRE: LECTURER EXPERIENCE AND OPINION OF THE PNG DIPLOMA IN TEACHING (PRIMARY) AT THE END OF 1993

Introduction

The first Diploma project, involved a professional officer repeatedly visiting a sample of staff in rural and urban colleges during 1991 for the purpose of observing the situation and interviewing the staff. Then, at the end of that same year, when all the principals and deputy principals were in conference, the opportunity was taken for a session with them to get their perspective of the Diploma and the administrative action they saw as necessary to assist the staff achieve its introduction. The second project, was the formal annual reports written by inspectors whose role it was to focus in-depth on the professional development and performance of individual staff. In this third project, lecturers themselves were asked to look back on three years of their own work and the progress of their student-teachers. The results gave the opportunity for the reader to see the PNG lecturers' own words and because the sample were responding from their posting in a college, it was possible to include data from a particular college staff. It was not the intention though to compare, nor to evaluate, staff and colleges.

The Questionnaire

Details of the sample for this project are given in Chapter Four (see Table 4.4). The Project III instrument was a questionnaire compiled in 1993 (Appendix 4.6) and is based on the results of Project I in 1991. It represents a Diploma 'life-history', for the years since its genesis, in 1990. There were 52 respondents from 103 staff on strength in seven of the colleges.

Theme: Lecturer Ownership of Material Being Taught

Question 1 - Staff 'continuity' as a factor in 'ownership'

Where were you in 1990, 1991, 1992 and 1993?

TABLE 8.8
CONTINUITY OF COLLEGE STAFFING 1990-1993

Colleges	Respondents N=52	1990	1991	1992	1993
Dauli	n=4	*	*	*	*
Kabaleo	n=6	*	*	*	*
Madang	n=8	*	*	*	*
Holy Trinity	n=11		*	*	*
Kaindi	n=10		*	*	*
Gaulim	n=7				*
Vunakanau	n=6				*

* Indicates 50 percent or more of the respondents were on staff in that college for the year.

Only three colleges Dauli, Kabaleo and Madang retained fifty percent or more of the respondents for four consecutive years (1990 to 1993) and two other colleges Holy Trinity and Kaindi retained fifty percent or more respondents for three consecutive years. However Gaulim and Vunakanau had less than fifty percent of the respondents on their staff for two consecutive years (see Table 8.8).

Question 2 - Involvement of staff in planning an original programme

Were you involved in developing a college three year Diploma in 1990, interpreting the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) guidelines?

Fifty percent or more of the respondents in each of the colleges except Holy Trinity stated they were involved in analysing the framework compiled by ATE. This document was distributed to each staff member by NDOE to assist the development of each college's programme. Involvement was at their current college or another one. Each college interpreted the framework document (NEB/ATE 1990) their own way, but had in common the framework and the submission of a devised programme to ATE for approval.

Question 3 - Involvement of staff in planning their own courses

Have you been able to teach what you planned for each of the three years?

The majority of the respondents at Dauli, Holy Trinity, Kaindi, Madang and Vunakanau taught a course they planned themselves for each of the three years; in some cases this was one unit only, a part of a subject. No staff used the new concept of a 'module'.

Adjustments occurred to written plans to accommodate the ATE comments and requirements, perceived student needs, college staff changes or other events such as workshops. Another 'event' was where the appointed 'developers' of the whole programme in a college during the formative stages left either at the end of 1990 or 1991, after carrying out initial work for ATE. A summary of developers' movements is shown in Table 8.9.

Question 4 - Involvement of staff in planning the content with their students

Did you design the course(s) you are currently teaching and is it based on the college's original ATE submission?

More than half of the respondents in each college had designed their own lecture content in 1993 but only a few answered whether it was based on the original submission. Of those who did respond the staff from Dauli, Gaulim and Madang stated it was based on the original submission, while those at Holy Trinity and Vunakanau stated it was based on the original with adjustments due to a need for expansion, the outcome of a workshop, personal overload or change of staff. All respondents from Kaindi answered this question in detail stating that three senior lecturers based the current course on the original submission and that it was mostly "in-line" but one said it was reviewed in 1991 and another said it was restructured for 1992-93.

TABLE 8.9

CONTINUITY OF THE NEW PROGRAMME DEVELOPERS: HISTORY

College	Developers (Co-ordinator)	History
Balob	Overseas consultant	Returned Canada after 1 year end of 1990
	Deputy Principal	Returned USA at end of 1991
	Deputy Principal from within	Continued 1992 to 1993-94
Gaulim	Lecturer from within the college	Returned Australia at end of 1990
	Senior staff member from within the college	Continued 1991 through to 1993-94*
Vunakanau	Principal from within the college	Transferred at the end of 1990
	Senior staff member from within college	Continued 1991 through to 1993-94*
Kabaleo	Senior lecturer from within the college working with principal	Returned Australia at end of 1990
	Principal	Transferred at end of 1991
	New Principal	Continued 1992 to 1993-94*
Dauli	Senior lecturer from within the college working with a senior lecturer who remained	Returned New Zealand at end of 1991
	Principal	Continued 1992 to 1993-94
Holy Trinity	Senior lecturer from within the college	Continued from 1990 through to 1993-94
Kaindi	Principal from within the college and short term overseas consultant	Both returned Australia at end of 1990
	New Principal	Continued 1991 to 1993-94*
Madang	Deputy Principal (Operations) and Deputy Principal (Curriculum) working with members of each college department	Both continued through to end of 1993
Port Moresby	Two people within the college - two senior lecturers, i.e., the co-ordinator of the whole programme and the senior lecturer Professional Studies strand.	Continued 1990 through to 1993-94*
	* Semester 2, 1994 due to volcanic eruption third year students with staff were evacuated from Gaulim to Port Moresby and Kabaleo and Vunakanau to Kaindi.	

Question 5 - Forward Planning

What new ideas do you have for your course(s) in 1994?

When questioned about planning for 1994 based on their own experience in the earlier years, respondents proposed 64 curriculum ideas for future action. Ideas came from all seven colleges. Each respondent in four of the seven colleges had at least one idea.

When analysed, the ideas clustered and are presented in order of frequency around five issues: Structure of the Programme, Teaching Strategies, Own Professional Tasks, Teaching/Learning Materials and Specific to New Primary School Reform as shown in Table 8.10.

TABLE 8.10

CLUSTERS OF NEW IDEAS FOR THE 1994 PROGRAMME PLANNING BASED ON EXPERIENCE WITH DIPLOMA IMPLEMENTATION 1991 TO 1993

Issues Around Which Ideas Clustered	N=52 Respondents (n=45) Ideas (N=64)	%
Structure of the programme	23	36
Teaching strategies	16	25
Own professional tasks	11	17
Teaching/learning materials	9	14
Specific to new primary school reforms	5	8

The ideas given by the respondents are listed under each of these issues in Appendix 8.5.

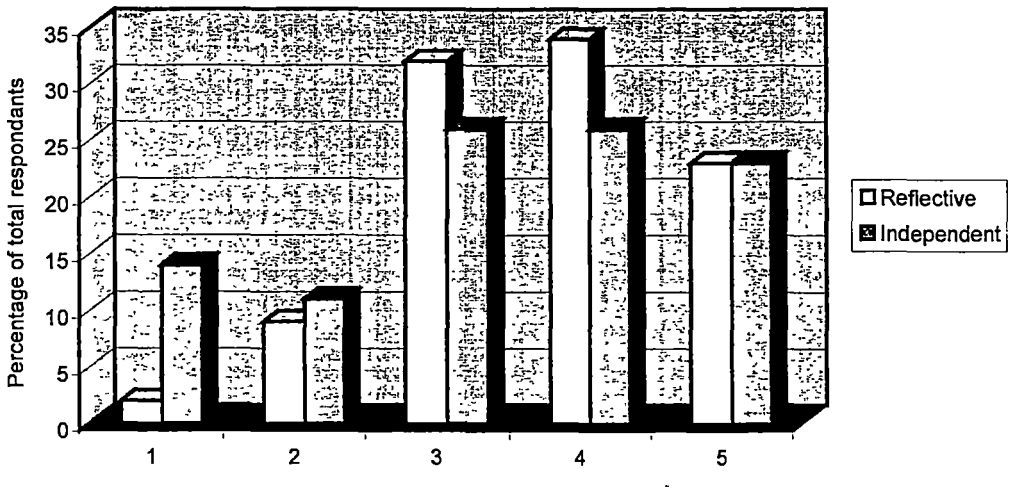
Theme: A New Kind of Teacher as Interpreted by Lecturers

Question 6 - More student-centred teaching

How successful do you think you have been at getting your students to think more deeply? and to think for themselves?

Lecturers were asked their judgement about their students' abilities to be reflective and independent thinkers as was required in 'a new kind of teacher'. A 'reflective thinker' was used by lecturers to indicate thinking 'more deeply' and an 'independent thinker' was students 'thinking for themselves'. Responses indicated that students had more success with reflective thinking (see Table 8.11).

TABLE 8.11
LECTURERS' JUDGEMENT OF THEIR STUDENTS' ABILITIES TO BE REFLECTIVE AND INDEPENDENT THINKERS



Less Successful ..... Category ..... More Successful

- Respondents were asked to judge how successful they thought their students were in learning to think in reflective and independent manners.
- Answers were categorised on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being more successful and 1 representing less success.

A question followed seeking to gain lecturers' ideas about their efforts in a PNG tertiary setting: *Can you give examples of learning strategies you have used to gain this student-centred approach?*

Respondents gave opinions and student-centred learning strategies they devised. A representative selection of which is listed as follows in Table 8.12 to inform the reader of the dimensions in which the lecturers were approaching tertiary teaching in a PNG setting.

TABLE 8.12
VERBATIM EXAMPLES OF TERTIARY LEARNING STRATEGIES IMPLEMENTED TO GIVE A STUDENT-CENTRED APPROACH TO TEACHING

Colleges	Selection of Strategies Enabling Student-Centred Learning
Kaindi	• Fewer formal lectures and introduced independent research and study as options • Change is needed by both staff and students (lecturer/administrator) • Staff need co-ordination to ensure consistent expectations of students • More relevant library resources (lecturer/administrator) • Seminars demanding preparation by students • Devising language games and articulating reasons for professional decisions • Investigative and interactive science teaching skills • Students helping each other to improve essay writing skills by exchanging drafts
Dauli	• Projects to research own content and reporting from group activities • Practical crop and animal responsibility for college dining hall supply • Students work together to build a common summary or position on an issue • Concept-mapping as a personal tool
Gaulim	• Process writing to improve written expression and reflective thinking at practice teaching • Take home tests and exercises for interpreting and analysing • Constructing own personal study timetable and following it; requiring punctuality • Preparation for panel discussions including community members as guest speakers • Introducing a course in Thinking Skills teaching concepts like analysis, reasoning and mastery
Holy Trinity	• Daily reflection record, self evaluation • Identifying everyday issues and finding solutions to conflicts • Contracting tasks and developing staff and student commitment • Readings set regularly and develop, reading as an enjoyable habit • Providing situations making student thought necessary and possible • Community and village sport co-ordination and umpiring • Creative use of bush materials, eg bat and ball, rope and colouring, learning and teaching new skills from other provinces • Thematic approach in college and school, linking planning
Madang	• Making sample aids for the demonstration school and helping with school maintenance • Regular self-paced remedial work where necessary • Field study excursions; making clay models for Social Science • Health clinic duties rostered for student-teachers • Campus play-group and child-minding responsibilities; child observation and recording • Structuring student work sheets and work books • Organising guest speakers and preparing routines, courtesies and questions in advance
Kabaleo	• Reviewing children's books, organising village libraries • Staff challenging student to improve on their own 'best performance', peer assessment at practice teaching • Cultural groups exchange: dances, songs and craft with classmates • Role play, mock interviews, reflections on own teaching • Select own research topics anticipated useful to the teacher in the field • Designing own school lesson plans, following principles and objectives
Vunakanau	• Reviewing journal articles; rostered library duties • Use of concept-mapping; formulating case studies • Keeping journals during practice teaching • Caring for college food and flower gardens and the animals on campus • Staff ensuring student work is assessed promptly and handout sheets clear

Question 7 - More independent learning by lecturers

Have you used any of the four sub-project Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) reports to plan, prepare or implement any of your responsibilities over the 1990-1993 period?

The interest of lecturers themselves to be independent-learners was investigated. The respondents from Kaindi had not read any of the four sub-project reports but one respondent in administration responded that the original college programme was based on these by the members of the ATE when they were writing the Diploma "guidelines" (NEB/ATE 1990). Twenty-one staff had read at least one report, leaving more than 31 respondents (N=52) who had *not* read any of the background material. However, many nominated other literature including the report *Philosophy of Education* (Matane 1986), the ATE framework document (1990) and the *National Content Guidelines* (NCG) (NDOE 1992; NDOE 1993). The latter being produced at NDOE workshops over the three years by the lecturers themselves and distributed in individual booklets.

Question 8 - More professional openness - articulation, sharing, collegiality

Have you really gained from staff co-operation? Such as assistance from a supervisor/helper, meetings in a department/strand, or exchange in workshops. Have you worked with your colleagues when teaching? Such as linked/ integrated/team-taught/used themes?

More openness to discuss professional issues and to work with colleagues when teaching had been observed as desirable during the 1991 classroom visits. Staffs' perceived gains from co-operation with supervisors, department or strand meetings and workshops and from curricular integration are recorded to give college views.

The survey responses were specific and data can be summarised under college groups to get some reflection of what the picture was in each institution about perceived gains from colleague 'co-operation' or 'integration', however there were some staff in the sample who did not report any perceptions to answer this question (see Appendix 8.6 (a) and (b)).

Question 9 - More Agreement on a vision of a 'new kind of teacher'

In what way has this graduating group reached your objective in terms of a 'new kind of teacher'?

A vision of a 'new kind of teacher' was indicated by respondents. What individual staff members in each college wrote as their objectives achieved by the first cohort of Diploma graduands, represent significant staff interpretations of their goal (see Table 8.13).

Question 10 - Relevant resources for lecturers

Do you own the booklet of a set of National Content Guidelines (NCG)?

Staff had been involved in writing the NCG over the 1990-1993 period. Seventy-five percent or more of the respondents in each of the colleges Dauli, Gaulim, Holy Trinity, Kaindi, Madang and Vunakanau owned a set of National Content Guidelines. They assisted with the planning of the core content of their units, course(s) or programme. Three respondents (N=6) at Kabaleo, owned a set of NCG in 1993. The three who did not, were new lecturers to the college.

Discussion: Lecturers' Experience

During observations and interviews in 1991 the theme of 'ownership' of college teaching material was demonstrated to be important for staffs' informed implementation of their part of the Diploma programme. If they were not involved in the creating of something new, while they may or may not have been told 'what' to change, without understanding 'why', it was difficult to know 'how' or by what means 'to change'. By the end of 1993, factors related to this were staff 'continuity', and on-going 'involvement' of staff in the development of the programme, and this was reflected in the questionnaire responses. While the 'continuity' of staffing in colleges was not closely studied, the service history at the end of 1993, of the sample of 19 staff visited in this study during 1991, showed: seven stayed in the same colleges for 1991, 1992 and 1993 but by the beginning of 1994 only one of the original group remained in the same college.

TABLE 8.13
STAFF PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITIES OF 'A NEW KIND' OF GRADUATING PNG PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER

Colleges	Lecturer's Objectives Reached by Student-Teachers
Kaindi	Students - • are able to reflect on and evaluate own teaching and to work on own weaknesses • level of operation and thought has been deepened • are more mature and constructively critical ◦ show during practice teaching that it is difficult not to follow the teacher's methods • have an expanded background knowledge for teaching ◦ are creative in their thinking and some are more open • are more academic and less capable in classroom teaching • are able to praise children for the right reasons • have changed to a more creative way of teaching written expression.
Dauli	Students - • are physically and professionally more mature • are more informed regarding content and more skilful with classroom management • talk less and do more and lessons are more child-centred • developed their understanding of teaching concepts gradually over a three year period ◦ are broadened in a view of the world to different degrees, show confidence and met college objectives
Gaulim	Students - • met National Content Guidelines to different levels • are articulate and confident • are critical, child-centred in their teaching and not controlled by time or system • are self analytical and willing to experiment • are reflective practitioners, facilitators, improvisers and able to integrate ideas • are aware that field policies and procedures will inhibit if too much flexibility in a new teacher
Holy Trinity	Students - ◦ demonstrated in schools their ability to adapt to situations and changes • are perceptive in discussion and conclusions and using evaluation criteria • are more mature with children, understand content of lessons and help children • have developed leadership skills, are organised and plan ahead • are moving to higher level thinking and are aware of children as individuals • in a one-term small elective group, they proved very impressive in their performance
Madang	Students - • will let children participate • respond to children and teach individuals rather than worrying too much about the pace of the lesson or syllabus • do things without being asked or told and see value in advice • think critically and are conscious of the teaching and learning process • have improved academic strands (but still have a long way to go) • show independence while on practice teaching • demonstrate positive thinking about nutrition and fitness
Kabaleo	Students - • recognise the library as a 'centre' of activity and learning in the college and school • are confident and resourceful at locating content material for their classes • are mature and can handle any situation in religious education lessons • are independent learners, evaluating their own teaching and able to assist peers
Vunakanau	Students - • can do practical research skills and organise their own group work at college • know that teaching grades one to eight is going to be difficult but are enthusiastic • are a little more content orientated, reflective and mature • are not yet 'a new kind of teacher', as the college needs funds and staff for dining hall, hostel, special education, religious education, community development and administration

The development of a 'new kind of teacher' was perceived by teacher educators in their classroom from 1991 to 1993, to be the goal of the Diploma. In order to achieve this, factors revealed by staff, through their responses and practices, as necessary components were:

- More openness and sharing by lecturers with one another
- More relevant PNG resources and even more imaginative use and care of what was already available in colleges
- More independent learning by students, enabled by lecturers
- More student-centred teaching by lecturers (and by student-teachers on teaching practice) including offering opportunities for students to be reflective thinkers and independent thinkers, in the context and content of learning to be a PNG teacher, and
- A clearer vision of a 'new kind of teacher' in order to implement the process

SUMMARY OF CLASSROOM IMPLEMENTATION

The Implementation of the First Year of the Diploma in Teaching (Primary), PNG 1991

Observations and interviews conducted with a sample of 19 PNG national college lecturers across six colleges during three visits in 1991, provided initial data. Lecturers had minimal involvement in preparation of the whole college programme or the course outlines. Their priority interests and activities were with new lecture content and students. Interaction with fellow professionals both inside and outside the colleges and with what was now their new college programme was limited and confusing. Within the classroom the lecturers were confident that their teaching styles were appropriate for tertiary level students and had incorporated more 'independent learning' opportunities for students although lacking new resources. They were unclear and concerned about new student assessment required by the Association of Teacher Education (ATE).

A three-question survey about the implementation of the Diploma with twenty administrators from all nine colleges provided insight regarding trends and their input. They listed severe professional, personal and community deficiencies in the current Certificate graduands and saw their colleges offering additional strengths to overcome these during their new Diploma programmes. Their perceived organisational changes were through the timetable, student assessment policy review and staff teaching styles. They were concerned that integration skills would be taught to students but overlooked

research skills for students and the need for staff leadeship and to meet more regularly to plan and to actually integrate departments, strands and the whole programme.

A Content Analysis of Staff Inspection Reports from 1991, 1992 and 1993

The content analysis was carried out by applying a defined template criteria consisting of three themes 'ownership', 'openness' and a 'new kind of teacher' to a set of 78 staff reports. These reports were written between 1991 and 1993 by the inspectors to individual staff from all the colleges. Over the sequence of three years fewer staff remained in the same college who were involved with the original whole programme but more contributed to course outlines. External and especially internal co-operation and openness was reported to have improved markedly and inspectors highlighted a range of appropriate classroom interaction with students. The majority of lecturers had not read the PNG, Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) reports as background to preparing 'the new kind of teacher'. Inspectors gave a declining, although still high, number of examples of staff enabling 'independent-learning' and staff remained 'student-centred'. There was more indication of reflective thinking than of independent thinking.

Lecturer Experience and Opinion of the PNG Diploma in Teaching (Primary) at the end of 1993.

Half of the lecturers in seven of the nine colleges responded to a questionnaire asking for reflection on the first cohort of Diploma students. Staff 'continuity' in the same college became a factor since 'involvement' was seen by fifty percent or more of the respondents as being at a college different to where they were currently working. Their forward planning for 1994, though not for the beginning of the next cohort, gave an indication of their confidence and ideas for further preparation, clustered around five issues: programme structure, teaching strategies, own tasks, college materials and school reforms. A 'new kind of teacher' for the primary school of PNG was becoming clearer to the lecturers as expressed in their response to whether students had achieved the lecturer's goals. The mechanics of getting from the written NEB/ATE framework to a changed programme and then a changed teacher output was slowly implemented in the classrooms and the whole programmes remained unclear for the staff over the three years.

THE DIPLOMA PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION BY STAFF OF COLLEGES AND CONGRUENCY WITH THE ORIGINAL POLICY OBJECTIVES

Introduction

Returning to the Introduction of this chapter and Research Question 4, (*Is the three-year Diploma in Teaching (Primary) programme, as implemented by staff of colleges between 1990/1991 and 1993, **congruent with policy objectives?**),* the Diploma projects have presented data related to the implementation by staff. The chapter next examines data on 'policy objectives' from the available literature, prior to considering the congruence between the actions and the policy. PNG Teacher Education Policy in 1990 was in two main categories. There was firstly, *on-going established policy* already accommodating the preparation of community school teachers as integral to the National Education System and secondly *the ad hoc policy issued specific to the Diploma in Teaching (Primary)* and related mainly to its introduction and curriculum objectives. The former was well known and the latter was launched but evolving (see Appendix 8.7 for details of the two categories).

Consideration of the Policies and the Action

Nothing from the on-going situation was officially acknowledged by ATE or withdrawn legally by the NEB between 1990 and 1993 with the exception of the external National Examinations in English and Mathematics Basic Skills, which ceased after 1990 as promised by the Secretary, with the end of the two-year Certificate programme in 1991.

The policies and the responses to the (1) McNamara Report and (2) the NEB/ATE Framework Document are considered next.

THE McNAMARA REPORT, MAY 1989

The nine principal recommendations were clearly written, widely read, consistent with long term discussion and inclinations and seen by all concerned as an outcome of the TERP and, after endorsement by the NEB, as an 'operational policy' document. The multiple subsidiary recommendations (see Appendix 8.8) were not so widely distributed, read or discussed (nor the rest of the report of some 114 pages), e.g., not to introduce the Diploma unless Grade 12 entrants were available. There is a brief check of the

congruence between the nine principal recommendations of the McNamara Report and actions (Table 8.14). The data in this section defines progress, but also gaps between policy and practice as follows:

Four of the nine principal McNamara recommendations were achieved. They were, that the pre-service teacher education programme was extended to three years (1.2) and designed to Diploma level (1.3); that the NEB establish the ATE with the UPNG Professor as chairperson to ensure Diploma level was seen to be processed (1.4) and a vigorous college staff development schedule was conducted (1.8) although the latter might have been improved by different planning.

Less successful were two of the other principal recommendations. They were getting Grade 12 National High School students to apply for and be awarded national tertiary scholarships for primary teacher education, as different from secondary teacher education, although the change in status to Diploma level was advertised (1.1), one example is Appendix 8.9, and getting final agreement from the Minister for a National Institute of Education, although comprehensive legal research and documents in a variety of formations were prepared by the chairperson of the ATE for NEB meetings (1.5).

Not researched in this study were the remaining three principal recommendations. They were the improvement of the product and 'teachers in communities' (1.7), although staff recorded improvement of their graduands (1.6) and the colleges which were spread throughout the provinces, reaffirming 'professional leadership to schools in the provinces' (1.9).

TABLE 8.14
McNAMARA REPORT 1989: PRINCIPAL RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONGRUENCE CHECK

McNamara: Principal Recommendations	**Action**	**Congruence**
1.1 A revised student selection plan, drawing from Grade 12 students	Implementation unsuccessfully attempted. National High School Grade 12 students unwilling to apply for a scholarship (Natschol) to train for primary school teaching even with Diploma UPNG status.	x
1.2 Programme extended to three years	Implemented. Secretary's circular 12/1990 instructed all colleges to commence a 3 year Diploma in 1991.	✓
1.3 Designed to Diploma level	Implemented. ATE wrote framework 1990, each college identified a 'developer', designed its own new programme and the writing was closely assisted by Professor Avalos UPNG and staff. NEB required in 1990 college programmes and courses be submitted to ATE.	✓ ?
1.4 National Education Board (NEB) establish Association of Teacher Education (ATE) as its *ad hoc* committee to work on suitable curriculum	Implemented (see above)	✓
1.5 Establish a National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) and legislation to accompany it, associated with UPNG.	Implemented, on paper only. With legal advice legislation prepared by ATE including as part of UPNG and as semi-autonomous. Rejected in 1994.	x
1.6 Graduates with Diploma from 1993 for 1994 posting to be quality improvement	Field feedback not known. Lecturers' perceptions of graduands as at November 1993 see Table 8.13.	?
1.7 And improvement as teachers in communities	Not known	?
1.8 Vigorous college staff development with NDOE, colleges and UPNG	Implementation on-going. Overload difficulties 1991-1993.	✓ ?
1.9 Colleges reaffirm professional leadership to schools in provinces	Not known	?

Key: ✓ Yes : x No : ? Maybe/unsure

NEB/ATE FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT, 'TOWARDS A NEW THREE YEAR CURRICULUM', SEPTEMBER, 1990

The framework extract (Table 8.15) is presented in this study in small segments to assist in identifying the intentions. Data are used from the Projects I and II but particularly from Project III to give examples of some implementation action (see Appendix 8.10).

Re-tracing the 'purpose' of the Diploma firstly. The PNG Philosophy of Education Integral Human Development (IHD), is based on the National Constitution which states:

> We declare our first goal to be for every person to be dynamically involved in the process of freeing himself or herself from every form of domination or oppression so that each man or woman will have the opportunity to develop as a whole person in relationship with others (National Constitution, 1975).

The Task Force based the McNamara Report on the Matane Report, attempted to define 'the kind of teacher that the Community School Teachers' Colleges should be trying to produce', and suggested future policy. The Task Force saw three major functions of community schools, i.e., contributing to Integral Human Development, providing an environment in which teaching and learning can be maximised, and providing opportunities for children to participate in meaningful ways in the local community, whether rural or urban (1989:38). The three basic strategies the Task Force suggested as necessary for producing this kind of quality, were improving student intake to colleges, a three-year programme and the establishment of a NITE. The outcome of the TERP was concern for the 'relatively low quality' of entrants, their inclination to teach 'formalised lesson plans' and lack of 'application of learning processes to the needs of individual children' (1989:5). The on-going tension was whether the school was preparing the child to enter high school or the village community living, without post-primary schooling.

Of the seven identified major parts to the framework NEB/ATE Document (Table 8.15), the kind of new teacher the new programme hoped to produce via segments in (1) gained responses from colleges that indicated understanding, whereas segments in (2) were philosophical ideas and not 'new' but already the 'community school' concept. The purpose of the new programme did not here appear changed. The guiding principles segments in (3) related mainly to balance of the programme with regard to subject content levels, area choices and time allocations within the whole three year sequence; these were difficult to plan and needed doing concurrently. Although the data showed each college

made at least one comment about integration it was about student-teachers or lecturers working with their class, whereas institutional integration was overlooked.

The three years in terms of structure, in particular 'strands' segments in (4) which was a difficult exercise of integration, began with whole programme planning but may have needed more on-going encouragement via regular strand meetings and 'organisation' as suggested in segments in (5). This was one of the most significant action aspects which needed informed assistance and linking with the guiding principles. The process of course (programme) revision (development) segments in (6) was attempted and on-going but to what extent is not clear. Also unclear was whether it was seen as 'course revision', as mentioned in the document, or 'programme development' an approach anticipated by SD&TD and APC originally. Perhaps it was more the latter given the seriousness with which the colleges took the appointment of special 'developers'. Workshops proved an addition to the work overload of college staff and their institutions. A multi-player situation with new contributors worked against achieving maximum results, although there was evidence of some productive workshops.

The varied 'related issues' section segments in (7) included: Student entry requirement, comparable assessment mechanism, college provision of some space for student study in the dormitory or elsewhere, the libraries facilitating references for independent study for students and staff and on-going professional development of national college lecturers. The last of these was on-going externally and comparatively well executed, while the other four remained long term tensions with occasional incremental changes.

TABLE 8.15
NEB/ATE DOCUMENT 1990:
FOUNDATIONS AND PROGRAMME STRUCTURE FRAMEWORK

FOUNDATIONS (NEB/ATE 1990:1-2)		Con-gruence
(1)	The (new) kind of Primary Teacher the new programme hopes to produce (NEB 1990:1) is as follows: (a) able to recognise individual differences in children (b) 'prepared and skilful enough to adjust the learning environment to meeting individual need' (Tetaga 1989) (c) able to develop spiritual values within school and community (d) a self-reliant, independent professional (e) 'interested in the community in which he serves and committed to education for resource development' (Tetaga 1989) (f) able to bring a critical thinking approach to curriculum and (g) to practice of teaching	✓
(2)	Purpose of new programme (NEB/ATE 1990:1) (a) to undertake more competently the functions belonging to the community school (b) contributing to each community school child's integral human development (Matane 1986) (c) providing environment to maximise teaching and learning (d) providing increased opportunities for school and community relationships and (e) meaningful participation of children in their own communities (McNamara 1989) (f) establishing, preserving and improving standards of education (Education Act 1984:14)	✓
(3)	Guiding Principles (NEB/ATE 1990:1-2) (a) changes not merely quantitative but focus on the qualitative improvement of contents, allowing exposure and reflection on a range of teaching practice (b) enable teaching all subjects in the community school but allow some depth and specialisation (c) subject-matter content studied to level of teacher confidence in community school curriculum. Matriculation level will be the aim of some courses (d) some subject-matter contents study throughout 3 years (e) Mathematics and English throughout 3 years with all staff, and students taking responsibility for own improvement (f) principles of subject integration (g) specialisations offered in core subjects, multi-grade teaching, special education or early childhood; options within subject areas (h) education as a social issue and stimulate reflection (i) recognise learning problems, special needs, guide discovery learning in conducive classroom environment (j) methods of teaching children separated from contents, some integration (k) introduction to 'craft' of teaching, clinical supervision, self-evaluation and peer-observation (l) methods traditional (lecture and group work) plus opportunity for self-learning projects (m) enable future teacher to serve community and school	?

Key: ✓ Yes : x No : ? Maybe/unsure

	PROGRAMME STRUCTURE (NEB/ATE 1990:2-16)	Con-gruence
	Structure of the Programme (NEB/ATE 1990:2) included terms as follows: - content areas ('strands') structured in courses and units - subject-matter knowledge (content) and professional development - 'integrated activities' - strands form an essential input to 'practice' and practical teaching - permeated by a (positive) 'social climate'	
(4)	Strands (NEB/ATE 1990:3) (a) strand format: objectives of the subjects, specific knowledge content, skills and attitudes (b) Language Development Strand (c) Mathematics and Science Strand (d) Spiritual and Social Development Strand (e) Community Development Strand (f) Professional Development Strand	✓ ?
(5)	Organisation (NEB/ATE 1990:14) (a) core curriculum and options in subjects and options (b) distribution will be subject area 50%; professional development area 25%; and practice teaching 25% (c) comparability via credit point system: module = 3 credits (d) maximum of twenty-five credit points per semester (e) initial concentration on subject-related content then practice teaching components increase towards year three (f) time allocated for options included in corresponding subject	?
(6)	Process of Course (Programme) Revision (Development) NEB/ATE 1990:15) (a) develop in college optional overviews of new programme (b) structure decided (revise) courses written at college (c) four steps recommended up to presentation to ATE (d) workshops for substantial changes in content and approach agreed ATE and TED organise 2 in 1990 and more in 1991 to develop core curriculum	✓ ?
(7)	Related Issues (NEB/ATE 1990-16) (a) entry requirement Grade 10 preferable Grade 12 (McNamara 1989) (b) assessment will be comparable mechanisms across colleges in core syllabus, practice teaching and suitability to be a teacher; grades ABCDF and P/F for suitability (attitudes) (c) college resource include study space for staff and students; (d) libraries with materials for staff and students (e) staff development include on-going on-the-job staff development; inservice external and within college	✓ ?

Key: ✓ Yes : x No : ? Maybe/unsure

Discussion: Diploma Implementation Congruency with Objectives

On-going policy mechanisms and responsibilities for processing teacher education in the nine colleges continued, after the McNamara Report was accepted for implementation in August, 1990. However, a consequence of the *ad hoc* policy specific to introducing the Diploma included one strategic change which was that the Professor and UPNG staff worked with the college principals in the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) to design and implement the new Diploma, instead of the Secretary, NDOE and SDTD staff. A policy change was the external examination of basic skills was discontinued.

The prompt implementation of four of the principal McNamara recommendations was because concerned groups had been requesting government similarly for many years and there was no need for further consultation. Also the recent public debate about the NEB supported external examination for entrants, and their failure rate, alerted parents and citizens to the urgent need to improve the quality of community school teachers, while church agencies welcomed the return to college internal assessment systems. A longer programme, at Diploma level, with UPNG leading the ATE and housing an Institute on the university campus motivated lecturers. The recommendation for 'vigorous' college staff development, was translated in the NEB/ATE Framework as workshops in 1990 and 1991 organised by ATE and TED. These were to assist college staff with the 'content and approach' for a 'core curriculum'. However a government-to-government commitment made earlier for an Australian aid programme involved QUT staff contracted in the same years for in-country staff development courses, not curriculum development. This lead to a drain on local workshop funds and staff and slowed specific strand assistance for college programmes.

Grade 12 entrants were available only slowly after 1991. Monitoring Grade 10 entrance level criteria more strictly was a positive move but demand pressures remained. If ATE had pursued the transition to NITE sooner and not projected heavy building costs, more modest existing arrangements may have been viable in 1992. The three recommendations related to quality graduands, community outreach and provincial leadership into 1994, and later, were not here researched.

Looking at the NEB/ATE Framework document which was initially all staff had to follow and relating its segments to input from college staff in Projects I, II and III some

implementation data are available. In the Foundations aspect of change from a Certificate to a Diploma qualification, the staff were most responsive to knowing 'the kind of primary teacher the new programme hoped to produce'. The approach to 'critical thinking' especially to curriculum in the community school was one of the national lecturers as ex-primary teachers themselves tackled with confidence. Lecturers were aware of the 'purpose' as the PNG rhetoric was established and already familiar, but the 'guiding principles' for change were complex and retained old dilemmas. Planning a whole new programme based on those guiding principles, would not be done in a 'one-off' submission to ATE, although a lot of time and care was taken by colleges with input from the university staff. The on-going planning of the programme, reported by the ATE chairperson and reviews and restructures for colleges in 1992 and 1993 described by respondents, gave insight to a fluid curricula for all the first cohort. However, 'new idea' plans for 1994 identified by individual lecturers (Table 8.10, see Appendix 8.5) indicated growing commitment to clarifying their work and maintaining standards.

Independently, lecturers attempted integration of content but with changes from 1990 to 1993 adjustment without internal communication could impinge on whole programme cohesion. The staff were open to the change to a Diploma award and looked for ideas on Programme Structure. They adopted suggested formats and referents but again a 'whole programme' orientation with on-going clarification and encouragement was needed from the leadership. Active 'developers' were key personnel. 'Organisation' instructions included modules and 'credit points', a system which was slow to be adopted even after 'processing' was completed. Small incremental changes were achieved at most colleges in the area of 'related issues'. Apart from the monitored entry level and further staff study, a comparable assessment mechanism was difficult as each college had evolved its own assessment system which it understood and did not wish to change even when confusing outsiders. The issues of poor teaching resources and libraries was related to finance but also to relevance, security and management.

CONCLUSION

This chapter sought to answer Research Question 4: *Was the three-year Diploma programme, as implemented by staff of colleges between 1990/1991 and 1993,* ***congruent with policy objectives?*** To conclude the chapter, a synoptic view was taken, with a focus on the curriculum implementation and any major gaps between that and policy issues.

The NEB endorsed objective of the new lengthened Diploma programme was to produce a new kind of PNG community school teacher. Three of the McNamara Report strategies were vehicles intended to achieve that end. They were an improved standard of intake of student-teachers, a three-year Diploma commencing in 1991 and the establishment of a National Institute of Teacher Education. These were successful recommendations in that there was universal agreement by stakeholders. However, looking at those main strategies, by May 1994, five years after the original distribution of the McNamara Report, besides moving from two to three years and miscellanea of activities towards evolving a new Diploma, the student intake had hardly improved and the NITE rejected. But, new Diploma programmes had begun in all of the 10 teachers' colleges.

The New Diploma Programme Curriculum Implementation

A broad definition for a teachers college 'curriculum' in PNG is: all that happens that would not happen if the college was not there. A college is Western residential buildings surrounded by PNG bush or houses and subsistence villagers. To a degree, the college and its curricula are isolated in order to teach new ways, but while the students, and more and more the staff, are of the villages, policy is to keep reaching out from the college into the villages and their schools to ensure the teacher preparation programme is relevant. Outsiders, visiting colleges briefly, are not aware of the involvements, inter-dependencies and tensions between the environment on campus and the surroundings and the cultures within each of those.

A Slow Unsure Beginning to the New Diploma Implementation

The lecturers in 1991 were not sure what new content to teach and how to teach it and consequently were hesitant (ashamed) about communicating with colleagues within the college. There had been some involvement of lecturers in the preparation of the programme sent to ATE but developers and able senior staff did most of the work and in-depth thinking. One national principal who had experience through the 'ranks' in college work and who himself completed post-graduate work overseas had managed to have his missionaries sponsor an American academic in 1986 in anticipation and a Canadian in 1990 as expertise towards getting a Diploma planned. He was very proud of the fact that the Professor praised Balob's submission to ATE. It is possible though, that in most cases those ATE overviews were comparatively brief, academic and were not distributed

to every member of the staff. Perhaps staff did not always realise the background, nor know that the programme was not finite when accepted by ATE, as was common belief. There were to be adjustments and additions each year as institutional decisions, expansions and changes were made. Teaching staff displayed little responsibility for the new whole programme in general and waited for internal leadership to come forward for guidance. At the same time trying to prepare their lecture material, from course outlines in various stages of detail and without new references was difficult. They often made use of earlier relevant Certificate programme preparation.

While lack of deep involvement and unwillingness to question those in college authority, was one reason for a gap in staff understanding of what was new, another was lack of continuity. This was related to the initial developers departing, inexperienced internal leadership, the familiar NDOE (TED) staff less involved due to the formation of ATE, the curriculum workshop postponements due to in-country staff development courses planned by Australian aid/QUT, as well as staff transfers from original colleges or study sojourns, different combinations of staff in a college and not having read TERP literature. On the other hand, change was naturally cautious and with three full years ahead administrators appeared in no hurry.

Mobility of personnel was evident, but materials were often not portable as each college, while originally following the common programme framework, had very different approaches. These became more at variance with each change over the three years. It is worth remembering that early colleges had moved from being quite separated, to commencing sharing more after 1968 and from the mid-1970s deliberately working towards having some curriculum in-common (see Chapters Six and Seven). One consequence of writing and re-writing the *National Objectives for Teachers Colleges* content guidelines, was that national staff identified with what could be labelled a core curriculum, although it was not called that. TERP researchers interpreted too much similarity or structure as undesirable and also reported that staff were using the National Objectives in differing ways, which had been encouraged and was their purpose (researchers interpreted that they were prescribed), but again that was reported as a weakness. The flexibility or alternatives ATE provided in the Diploma processing and content was a reaction to perceived structures by outsiders. Not realised was the value placed on staffs' teaching materials accumulated over a decade, in which nationals themselves had been involved in decision making and writing. The gap was the fluid and

unsorted nature of the developing new programmes which made it difficult for staff to work with and for outsiders to assist.

The Value of Strong Professional Assistance External to the College

The assistance of the UPNG Professor was a strong element in getting the extension of the programme to three years and then to getting the Diploma starting promptly in 1991. It is unclear whether the UPNG staff hired to assist ATE actually did more than, as subject specialists in the early stage, comment on college written programme and course submissions. College staff did not refer to UPNG staff in data. The Australian government-to-government aid in the form of some 12 QUT senior staff giving two-week in-country courses throughout the 1990-1994 period was unfortunate planning, in as much as QUT needs had to be given priority use of in-country workshop funding, when the tasks identified by McNamara (1989) and NBE/ATE (1990) were core curriculum for colleges and teaching materials which would have assisted strand integration. It was obvious also that needed were such Diploma skills as negotiating integration of materials between college departments in a strand, understanding better what ATE meant about new student assessment practice, use of independent learning and research skills for student-teachers as well as relevant texts and sharing documents. These were not targeted but would have been included if the 'normal' local professional development was operating. This kind of activity may have been seen by the researchers as 'spoonfeeding' lecturers. The gap here was that while very senior academics experienced in teacher education overseas were provided and very eager to assist colleges, they may not have been immediately helpful at programme and classroom level, due to many reasons, one, in the case of Australian aid courses, was that QUT was operating on so called 'fixed original bids'. Attempts made by the NDOE to temper the dissonance, given the shift of leadership were easily misinterpreted by ATE and QUT. Who had negotiated the QUT fixed offerings, and why, was unknown by NDOE and college teaching staff.

Student Assessment and Self Evaluation

Sensitivity to any kind of judgement at any level led to codes and figures to try and transmit the facts of the assessment message. A gap existed between how staff were assessing in their classrooms, what comprised a college assessment system, sanctioned and protected by it's Governing Council, and a new 'module' and 'credit system comparable

to UPNG' in the NEB/ATE Framework. During the period of the first cohort of Diploma students, assessment caused a lot of worry by lecturers and talk about revision of systems by principals, but there was less comparability across colleges regarding standards of graduates than ever before.

Keen Efforts by Lecturers and Some Constructive Outcomes

Data from staff observations, practices and dialogue indicated that although there were barriers to easy implementation of new programme activities, necessary general components for successful implementation were :

More openness and sharing by lecturers with colleagues: In the first years, staff found professional communication easier with transient outside personnel, used the newly donated facsimile machines to contact Australia and kept in touch with people teaching the same subject area who worked in other colleges. As they built up their own confidence and were more familiar with colleagues during the three years, they planned a little more freely internally with fellow national staff. Given the many aspects of campus life in which teaching staff were involved, it is possible that getting staff together at the one time for extra formal consultation was one difficulty, another was new content and theory.

More PNG Diploma orientated resources and materials: Reading staff responses gives an idea of the resourcefulness of lecturers accustomed to using students, themselves, local facilities, school materials and self reliance when they were unaware of literature or modern aids. They made their own worksheets and gave board summaries or prepared single page summaries as notes for students in the absence of what elsewhere may be seen as library support. Retaining and sharing these would increase the PNG resources.

More independent learning and thinking by students, enabled by lecturers: One TERP researcher indicated lecturers were doing too much for their students and this was repeated in the McNamara Report as a weakness transferred to the classroom by student-teachers or teachers with pupils. It may have come from a history of there rarely being enough of any reference to go around, or the lecturer preserving his own copy and 'feeding out' the pertinent. The outcome of this so-called new policy was mountains of un-read and un-graded written assignments, much of which had been unrelated to specific learning tasks

and not appropriate for student-teachers to use in their own teaching. The 'independent learning' approach was adapted as the staff enabled students to research and felt less responsible for checking specific details.

More student-centred teaching by lecturers (and with pupils) and reflective thinking: National staff were each prepared for their work having studied for a Diploma and/or Bachelor qualification in Tertiary Education. They were versatile in enabling 'independent learning' and small group work, they also had what some may observe a strong 'student-centred' approach. Part of which style could be seen as tolerance and a warm concern for people. Yet, a major feature was made in the TERP reports about the student-teacher and the classroom teacher, teaching lessons rather than pupils and the need for more awareness of individual differences; an on-going need.

A clear vision of a new kind of PNG primary teacher: Action congruent with knowledge is suggested to require clarity, relevance, action images, will and skill (Miles 1987). Elements in this change study also needed ownership and openness. The 'vision' was not clearly defined for diffusion of such a publicised innovation. Staff seemed satisfied to just leave the tag as 'new kind of teacher', whereas the expatriate TERP researchers had a whole new paradigm implication embedded in the McNamara Report, that had not translated into practice, even by the beginning of 1994, with the fidelity intended. However, Papua New Guinean lecturers were gradually adapting ideas and materials.

In the next chapter, Chapter Nine, there is discussion of the significant elements embedded in the results of each Research Question.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a discussion of selected major issues raised in the results of the four Research Questions presented in earlier chapters. A selection from the data was necessary to get at the nub of the Papua New Guinea (PNG) teacher education scene. The questions were related to the broad focus of the study, i.e., teacher education policy and practice in PNG over the fifty years 1946 to 1996. Each Research Question gave a specific focus: namely, policies, staff localisation, teachers' college programmes and classroom implementation. The fourth Research Question data were about implementation of the new Diploma between 1991 and 1993 and its congruence with original policy objectives. The chapter has a summary of some of the study's limitations, suggestions for future research and closes with the conclusion to the study.

DISCUSSION

Research Question 1

What policies evolved to facilitate the implementation of primary teacher education from 1946 to 1996?

Introduction

National level education policies impacted on teacher education. With policy discussion the foci, the data in Chapter Five and its Appendices, indicate examples of this fact. In particular, there was the emphasis on primary schooling and repeated attempts to set dates for achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE), e.g., from as early as 1958 with the target of 1973, and the consequent pressure on the Administration and then the Government for increased numbers of indigenous teachers. The Language policies were debated by anthropologists, missionaries, government officers and later language teaching specialists, including the internationally renowned Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) (Russell 1997). They were an implicit part of decisions about primary schooling and subsequently teacher education. There were tensions with and between the Mission systems, in particular their representatives, confident powerful overseas leaders, e.g., in the

Lutheran and Roman Catholic agencies (Wagner & Reiner 1986; SVD/SspS 1996) until, and after, the eventual formation of the combined Teaching Service, combined here meaning both Administration/Government teachers and Mission/Church teachers as well as those serving in Papua and in New Guinea. The slower investment in secondary education and the poor academic standard of the hundreds of pre-war Mission-trained field teachers (Meere 1968) influenced the academic levels of future primary teacher education applicants. However, the missionaries produced thousands of literate Christian citizens and served in villages (see Chapter Two) which was what Mr Hasluck had seen as ensuring potential for informed political unity (see Chapter Five).

While Secondary, Agricultural, Technical and Vocational pre-service and inservice teacher education have parallel narratives which at times included Primary teacher education system support, none of that data were pursued in this study as this thesis emphasised primary school teacher preparation.

The general time-frame for primary teacher education policies derived for this study were: the Australian Administrations's educational leadership in the first 20 Post-World War II years and its influence on teacher training policies (1946-1967); the Annual Principals' Conferences and teacher education policies (1968-1993) in three periods - from colleges' consolidation to the political Independence era (1968-1976); from the gazetted post-Independence Ministerial Statement on teachers colleges' curricula to the end of the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) which was the McNamara Report (1977-1989); from the creation of the *ad hoc* Association of Teacher Education (ATE) to the graduation of the first cohort of Diplomates (1990-1993) and finally, after the Ministerial rejection of a different form of co-ordination through the recommended National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE), to confused policies when the Commission for Higher Education claimed the ensuing years and closure of this study (1994-1996).

1946-1967

If Directors Groves, Roscoe and Johnson and Minister Hasluck had not been the founding fathers of post-World War II government policy development in education, the cultures integral to the people and the enterprise of the Christian Missions may not have been so substantially accommodated in the schooling systems of their time and subsequently (see

Chapter Five). They provided a progression from pre-World War II government pacification and land protection policies (see Chapter Two). This could be contrasted with Australia's policies for Aborigines over the same era. They were first counted in a census in 1967. Director McKinnon claimed post-war there was less supervision of the missionaries remaining in allocated areas and therefore more competition between them; 'Historic sectarian divisions have been transplanted into Papua and New Guinea' (McKinnon 1968:3) and the Education Advisory Board was seen to put more energy into sorting out mission requests than into the actual development of an education system.

Criticisms of Government, in retrospect (Meek 1972; Howie-Willis 1980) were about the initial pace and undirected nature of native education and the choice of English for instruction, with the consequence that vernacular was suppressed in schools in order to practice English speaking (and therefore unfortunately then said to have been seen by the people that vernacular was inferior). The slow provision of a secondary school system within the country meant scores of young native people in the 1950s and 1960s attended private secondary school in Queensland. Considering the challenges of the rugged land and communications, isolated warring people, negative racial attitudes of foreigners, severe financial constraints, and the uniqueness of Australia's own developing status, a lot of pacification, protection and progress was gained (see Chapters Two and Five).

The missionaries worked at the village level with the indigenous people, fraternising in a way normally Public Servants were not permitted. However, the fact was, the 1967 official statistics indicated there were some 68 000 children in government primary schools and 132 000 children in mission schools (McKinnon 1968:9). The schools in which they were enrolled were distributed approximately as follows: Catholic 51 percent, Lutheran 13 percent, Anglican 11 percent, Methodist 8 percent, London Missionary Society 6 percent, Seventh Day Adventist 5 percent, Unevangelized Fields Mission 2 percent and 20 other smaller groups (Meere 1968). Governments had encouraged the Missions to pioneer education and it appeared they invaded, took over and put up a fight when Government reclaimed authority or wished to give direction for forward joint planning in response to outside political pressure. The Administration in PNG and its officers while at times appearing powerful, internally according to data, were also often under siege from Canberra, the United Nations or the Missions (see Chapter Five).

The tension between the Administration's conservative but patient style and the Missions'

paternalism and territorialism did not abate and negotiations resulted in increased government subsidising of non-government education. Handing over to Director McKinnon, Mr Les Johnson acknowledged the social difficulties in early years and the achievements of his predecessors. The Administration was moving from roles of, so called, control, then supervision to leadership with increased resources and an emphasis on quality. The challenges for the Administration, the people and the Missions were, every aspect of schooling, the standards and numbers of teachers, teacher education, relevant curriculum materials and finance (Johnson 1970).

The Annual Principals Conference (APC) data for the period 1968-1993

The APC data were divided into three eras as follows: 1968-1976, 1977-1989,1990-1993. From the macro-view of the outstanding leadership and early policy-making, the following discussion moves to a more micro-perspective, where the teacher education implementation was happening. Principals were participants, insiders, who it was seen had the potential to communicate with the most influential people and still keep their feet in provincial politics and student-teacher routines.

1968-1976

By the time Dr McKinnon introduced the policy of consolidation to what became the Annual Principals' Conference (APC) in 1968, the Goroka primary teachers' college (1960-1967) was being expanded with World Bank I funds into a Secondary college. Overseas guests who attended the first conferences were Professor John Lewis from London and Dr H H Penny a teacher educator from South Australia. Consultant was not a term used, but they made controversial statements about past schooling and regarding Mission teacher training. For example, entrance levels were too low for prospective teachers, preparation was religion orientated and the Administration provided little firm supervision (Lewis 1968; Penny 1969a, b).

The situation had been similar twenty years before in British colonies in Africa, the West Indies and South East Asia where missionaries had a pioneering role and the colonial government was slow to intervene, when they did, praising missionaries for their efforts and trying to consult and incorporate Mission knowledge and strengths (Lewis 1954). One British model for colonial educational administration was the large advisory

committee with a broad focus. Membership of these standing or *ad hoc* bodies was impressive and also translated into a strategy for consultative leadership in the Territories of Papua and New Guinea pre-Independence, e.g., Currie (1964), Weeden (1969), Brown (1971). This continued post-Independence, e.g., Rogers (1979a, b). A more recent British colonial comparison with Papua New Guinea was the withdrawal from Hong Kong with dignity and authority after influencing education systems (Morris 1998; Patten 1998). The cost of continuing expatriates after Independence for all developing countries was prohibitive. Dedicated overseas volunteers, e.g., AVA, CUSO, VSO were a workforce in common, especially until local secondary teachers were available (Lewis 1954; Gardner 1979).

In 1968, a Teacher Training Officer had been operating out of head office in Konedobu, Port Moresby for ten years and with the co-operation of regional inspectors made advisory visits to remote Papua and New Guinea Mission and Administration training centres. The Background in Chapter Two, tells of how the missionaries had pioneered both Territories. Outcomes of this long connection by the Missions were deep rooted knowledge of the people, capital investment and a disposition to debate and demand input to educational decisions. In Australia, there was concern about the growth of religious schools in particular the Roman Catholic Church having 'its own complete system' (Butts 1955:24). Butts, a visiting educationist, compared the negative implications for the state system with USA and suggested there would be 'incessant pressure for state aid' (ibid). There were more than 20 known Mission Teacher Training Centres in the Territories of Papua and New Guinea in 1960, by 1968 there were 17 Mission and three Administration and in 1993, eight Church and one Government pre-service colleges. By the close of this study in 1996, the two Catholic men's and women's colleges near Rabaul (Vunakanau and Kabaleo) had finally amalgamated. Co-education was a long recommended Government policy for all secondary and tertiary institutions but the Catholic Bishops, on behalf of the local people, stated that they wanted the option of single sex colleges, and were able to retain what both the Bishops and Tolai people preferred. This adaptation of policy to preferences, in the face of government, is an example of two powers, the culture integral to the people and the Church.

The regularity of the Annual Principals' Conferences over ensuing years, offered much needed consultation for policy formulation, continuity for understanding of underlying intentions and building changes into feedback from the colleges and field (APC 1980).

The Teacher Education Division (TED) was a co-ordinating and unifying communication point and the National Education System operated with reliable staff and funds for committees, with an effective focus on teacher education. The Churches wanted the best they could get from government for improving their young adherents, and government could not afford to build and support eight replacement colleges but debated benefits of a few large colleges. The formation of the Teaching Service in 1970 brought improved employment conditions for the Mission employees and assisted standards and supervisory processes under the Education Act (1970).

Self Government was two years later in 1972. The Chief Minister in his National Day Speech, given in three languages stated, 'Nowadays, PNG men and women go from their families, their clans and their districts to other places to work for the good of other people who are not their 'wantoks' ' (Somare 1972) (see Appendix 2.2). Wantoks is a Pidgin term for extended family members or those speaking the same local language. Such extracts serve to gauge the cultural situation, reflect on the political impatience of Australia and the nature of indigenous needs. This was at the time the college lecturer programme began in Canberra (see Chapter Six). Independence in 1975 came faster than most of the Missions, by then referred to as Churches, had anticipated. Localisation was not a concept in their 'mission field' theory which was often, life commitment. The Missions needed the Government's unifying direction and to be seen then to be part of the localisation policy. Chapter Six data indicate the reciprocal assistance between Government and Church college staff when professionally upgrading national associates.

The Organic Law on Provincial Government (Bray 1984) had Education amendments and the creation of Provincial powers which meant all primary, vocational and secondary schools, after decentralisation in 1976, became the responsibility of 19 provincial departments of education. It was into this category that college demonstration schools fitted (see Chapter Five). In an inventory of over 400 National Research Institute Reports 1975-1990 there was no separate mention of Church establishments as a topic for research (Weeks 1990). The teachers' colleges were not absorbed similarly into provinces but into a set of national institutions (along with the five National High Schools for Grades 11 and 12 and Technical Colleges) but retained a strong, recognisable Church identity. They had their own funding (with Government grants), religious staff and practices, which were accepted by its 'partner', the Government. The number of hours for formal religious instruction during the regular timetable was reduced or spread over the week since

colleges were residential and this was part of the student-teachers' all-round development (Matane 1986).

1977-1989

The data related to this era indicated major innovations for the whole of the National Education System. If there were many structural, system and operations developments or changes in the previous decade, this new era was especially involved with curriculum and professional issues. For teacher education it began with the Ministerial Statement 22/77 on Curricula. Teacher Education was Schedule F, included in the Gazette with all other levels of 'school' in the Education Act. The Schedule gave specific requirements (see Chapter Seven and Appendix 7. 1). It compared with such significant documents for teacher education as the published one-year Course Syllabus (DOE 1962), the indexed document for the APC 1973 Report, collated lovingly by the departing Anglican principal after his Mission's small only college consolidated with the Lutherans at Balob, and the last significant document of the decade, the McNamara Report (1989). The comprehensive Ministerial Statement 22/77 was a directive for teacher education, but it incorporated most of what was already functioning - as practical 'policy' - as a result of regular combined interaction between TED and the principals and building onto previous policies by way of 'incrementalism' (Lindblom, quoted in Colebatch 1999:78). There were no data to suggest that the Ministerial Statement was other than accepted as the reference for all teachers colleges from then onwards.

The standards inquiries (DOE 1977b, 1980; Kenehe 1981), and reflections on progress of the Five Year Plan 1976-1980 (Rogers 1979a) as well as the Higher Education Act 1980 were to become important to teacher education. It was not until college entrants were reported by principals to be at a seriously lower level Grade 10, that the combined effort at basic skills remediation began. This lead to the external examinations, the NDOE dilemma and the first serious conflict between colleges and the Government, through the NEB, in 20 years. These were major policy initiatives which did not enjoy universal support.

As indicated in Chapters One and Seven, the Teacher Education Research Project (TERP) sponsored by the NDOE generated substantial in-country reports. They included: the impact of the basic skills courses and examinations (Yeoman 1987), a national survey of

beginning teachers (Ross 1988) and the field observations of beginning teachers (Ross 1989); characteristics and problems of (student) practice teaching (Avalos 1989) and the final task force (McNamara 1989). It was on these comprehensive reports that the recommendations for major policy change between 1990 to 1994 were based including the three-year Diploma, ATE and NITE. The research sub-projects were so integral to thinking and so professional that the attitudes of the principals of the colleges were supportive throughout. As there were little data on report distribution and follow-up, except the McNamara Report (1989), it appears there was more involvement in the personalities and process of the research than the outcome or contents of each report, which may also have been overly detailed. Data in Chapter Eight show that very few national staff either had access to them or read them, although some senior staff were involved as research assistants. Also verbal or executive summaries (Vulliamy, Lewin & Stephens 1990; Weeks 1990) were critical or synoptic about what was happening in the field and the colleges, which may not have been so severe if staff themselves could have read and understood the details given in the reports and even defended or reacted. It can be seen that the documents had long-term relevant reference value, within college staff libraries, and that they were not reports of a one-off exercise, with a quick remedy but rich reference data.

1990-1993

The data in the 1990s indicate that colleges were wanting to be more independent. While college Governing Councils reported directly to the National Education Board, colleges did not see themselves as independent. Annual grants from Government, calculated on student numbers for particular activities, provided for some colleges their only income. Private fee paying students was a concept discussed and attempted by Catholic colleges with students from other Pacific countries. An independent Adventist college, at which students paid fees by labour, had for many years served the Pacific Islands. McNamara (1989) and Avalos (1989) data pointed to independence for colleges expressed in terms of principals needing to plan their own budget. More closely analysed, it was required that funds allocated to colleges could be moved by Principals (or their agencies) across different activities on their initiative. This appeared a financial control of standards, held by the Minister, which most tied colleges.

Overseas finance for teacher education was not new. World Bank I and II loans assisted

teacher education in the 1960s through to the 1980s, as did the input from Australian aid to lecturer preparation from the 1970s to the 1990s. The processing is detailed over the years as appropriate. The 1990s strategy changed to tied aid (Dorney 1998). There appeared then no local means available for a PNG government department to adjust a project once it was activated (see Chapter Seven).

From 1994 to 1996: Anxious Years

The data (in Chapters Five, Six and Seven) gave repeated examples of the role of the Teacher Education Division (TED), which was renamed Staff Development and Training Division in 1991 (see Appendix 7.9 (a), (b)). It was located in the NDOE under an Assistant Secretary, a position localised in 1972 (see Appendix 6.2). The role was basically one of co-ordination of government financed services for all teachers' colleges operations and curriculum and professional staff tasks. The TED prepared in 1970 and updated regularly a Position Statement from which all contact with colleges flowed, in order to better relate on professional support and supervisory matters with colleges. This was also helpful to have with duty statements and clarification for new officers. While TED was obviously part of the State-Church equation in the development years, from its inception by Director Roscoe in 1958, it presented a consistent centre-point for all teacher education interests and college personnel. Its ambivalent role after the McNamara Report planned, and the NEB confirmed, the functioning of the *ad hoc* ATE committee led to its ultimate demise soon after 1996. Successive TED officers had supported for many years the creation of an Institute of Teacher Education in order to better carry on future resource roles, but away from the restrictions and obligations of government, and so that what did happen in terms of discontinuity of assistance and communication for national staff, would not happen. For historical data on an Institute of Teacher Education in PNG, see Chapter Five and Liriope (1993).

This situation in PNG of needing a teacher education co-ordination and specialist role which would offer assistance and continuity, while demonstrating the notion of independence, was evident in ex-European colonies (Hanson 1968; Dove 1986). In Zambia an Institute of Education trained Secondary teachers and soon after in 1967, a teachers college was associated and prepared non-graduate secondary teachers. Institutes were opened in Nigeria, Malaysia and Uganda. Some were associated with universities and others were directly responsible to the Ministry of Education as in Sierra Leone,

Singapore and Tanzania (Dove 1986:189). In the UK, the Institutes were like a university Department but more independent and specialised. There were no data located relating to Institutes for Teacher Education only, indicating assistance to *teacher educators*. The original PNG idea was more like the UK Teachers' Centres, but a Resource Centre for college staff. The design in the proposal (McNamara 1989:54-56) was a costly structure but promised flexibility. In the July, 1991 Education Sector Review meetings it was also recommended that a NITE be created. The Commission for Higher Education (CHE) was asked to prepare a project document for the Public Investment Programme (PIP) and the submission be *linked with* the UPNG submission for a new Faculty of Education Building (DOE 1991:28). It appeared that this was the point that the shift in initiative for policy-making from the NDOE to the CHE began (see the latter part of Chapter Five).

Overall the data show, in relation to Research Question 1, that government policies evolved to implement primary teacher education over 50 years which at times lagged and at other times led the way with nation-building needs. Because of the Christian missionaries' early deep independent involvement in schooling, the on-going encouragement of this by governments, and their own determination and zeal, by the 1990s church influence on policies was not only as a partnership but paramount. Outside assistance to teacher education, where well fitted into a particular internal phase of development, was invaluable.

Research Question 2

What policies between 1946 and 1996 supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers and how did these relate to the work of the teacher education system?

Introduction

This study was focused on the preparation of indigenous Papua New Guinean teachers' college staff. The sub-questions from Chapter One, Introduction, relating to this research question, namely: how did the transformation occur, what anticipation was there for localisation, who assisted with the undertaking and what lecturer preparation occurred? are firstly revisited.

Research Sub-Question 2.1

How did the transformation from overseas to indigenous staffing occur?

National changes were from being diverse indigenous communities, then to what was seen by outsiders as a backward Territory with scattered developments, to a move towards political Independence which began acceleration in the late 1960s. The momentum for localisation increased immediately before Self Government in 1972, continued after Independence in 1975 and, as in the case of the staff of teachers colleges, did not reach complete transformation in all tertiary institutions even by 1996 (APC 1996). Although the three smallest colleges, Dauli, Gaulim and Vunakanau, and two of the largest, Balob and PMIC were close to the target in 1992. The major tilt in PNG of indigenous staff numbers in teachers colleges was in 1991, the first year of the new Diploma programme.

This localisation process of the staff of the Department of Education was a policy imperative and it was the Department that set the 'emergency' pace. Procedures for executive identification and development laid down in the early 1970s survived, with some adjustments, to almost complete localisation. The Director, Mr Paul Songo, reported in the *PNG Education Gazette* in 1977 (1977:279-280), that there were many criticisms and warnings to him about the speed with which young teachers were pushed 'up' into responsible roles. Another feature of the localisation executive development scheme, was to give opportunities for broadening understanding of the responsibilities of the National Education System, by moving national officers from one senior position to another senior position, as a step in their professional or career development. While this may have appeared a useful activity, in practice it disrupted policy and implementation due to a need for leadership to catch-up on information, vocabulary of a new section or division and personnel communication. However, mobility of senior officers whether in the field or head office had several advantages. For example, it assisted with unity within, by then, the *National* Department of Education (NDOE). At first it mattered whether the associate or appointee was from one province or another, leading to efforts to balance those from Papua or from New Guinea, from the islands or highlands, in the combinations of appointments to a province, a division or an institution. After some years, there was almost a new 'NDOE culture'. Nationals from all different parts of the country, belonged to it and tended to be loyal to the duties although clan obligations often proved difficult for the incumbent. There were no data that indicated this became a major problem. Staff supervised one another regarding 'wantokism', i.e., nepotism in

English.

The transformation occurred as planned, quickly in the senior ranks and lowest positions with the middle ranks of expatriates the last to localise, a process which was almost complete in the Public Service by the early 1990s.

Research Sub-Question 2.2

What anticipation was there of localisation?

The data in Chapter Six indicate the extent to which the Staff Development Unit within the Teacher Education Division were involved with the localisation scheme. One difficulty for those with responsibility for a whole system working well was appointing a person to a responsible position then permitting the person to actually take the responsibility. Some divisions and other Departments were evidently hesitant fearing the implications if errors were made due to inadequate preparation of the inexperienced officer (see Chapter Six).

A principal or deputy principal in a teachers college was seen as a very senior and responsible job but with competent support staff with whom to consult. Senior Lecturers in the middle ranks often provided experience and advice. Administrative positions in colleges were made part of the localisation process, the first appointment being the Deputy Principal at Port Moresby Teachers College as early as 1973, closely followed by Madang. The two Government colleges took the lead and localised from the top and the bottom ranks following the routine throughout the Department. The Church colleges who normally had expatriate church principals began to see the changes in action and communicated with their own senior Church agency personnel about staffing. The Christian Brothers had major commitments to long term service which they managed to retain over time in their two colleges by applying for PNG citizenship (Chapter Six).

The Department of Education lead other Government Departments in actioning schemes for localisation, they were ahead of the times as was the Teacher Education Division with setting up overseas study at Canberra College of Advanced Education for national lecturers in 1972. The Missions in general seemed not to anticipate the need to accelerate senior positions to nationals, but in fact, due to staff and funding demands some had localised many years previously at the more junior ranks ahead of others (Chatterton

1980).

Research Sub-Question 2.3

Who assisted with the undertaking of localisation?

The localisation undertaking was a nation-wide policy, implemented according to guidelines and executive committees in which senior head office personnel participated and those personnel themselves quickly became 'local officers', who then assisted with furthering training schemes. Although the takeover of each position was planned on a time-line, the person being replaced was not always ready to depart and temporary alternative plans were arranged for the expatriate. Of the line of national Directors (Secretaries) who followed Director McKinnon, A Tololo (later Sir), P Songo and G Roakeina were appointed to the position of Deputy Director and learned the roles on-the-job, whereas J Tetaga and P Baki were younger. They became chief administrators by outstanding performance and acceleration through the ranks (see Appendix 6.1). Owing to the peaceful gaining of Independence in PNG there were at least five years to anticipate, get policies prepared and plan strategies for change. In colonial countries which gained Independence with violence there may well have been no planned localisation. The PNG executive development and localisation and in particular long term preparation of college staff appeared to be unique in concept and application.

Comparative data indicate that in 1968, the East African countries Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya employed in both church and government primary teachers colleges many young indigenous secondary school teachers or university graduates. The primary teachers college courses there were heavy with academic studies and would fit into the Morris and Williamson (1998) comparative study as working in an environment influenced by foreign models. Indeed many of these African teachers' college staff had recently graduated from Tanzania in Russia, from Uganda in USA and from Kenya in UK (Quartermaine 1968).

Research Sub-Question 2.4.

What lecturer preparation occurred in this phase?

The data on PNG lecturer preparation was detailed in Chapter Six. This demonstrated the infinite care in selection from applicants then their placement, assistance, supervision and evaluation in all aspects of the college attachment. Professional opportunities and co-

operation of colleges' staff as well as further study abroad were part of sequenced and structured preparation. Upon completion of preparation candidates were placed in vacancies as acting lecturers, inspected after one year for attaining Acceptability as a Lecturer (this compares with Registration as a Teacher) from then applying for advertised vacancies to college Governing Councils. They became members of the National Teaching Service, a status which it was suggested staff might shed for colleges to be truly independent tertiary institutions (Avalos 1991c:4). Their mobility across colleges, as suggested in the data in Chapter Eight and Table 8.8, until they were able to settle, was not conducive to institution building, although the experience in differing settings was seen as a professional growth opportunity for individuals from which colleges would gain in the future. The disadvantage to new programme development during the 1990 to 1993 was obvious. Until the mid-1980s there were more stable conditions in institutions. Overseas Government contract personnel for Madang and Port Moresby (Goroka became a campus of UPNG) were normally on three-year contracts. Overseas church personnel, some of whom had been missionaries remained on six year placements before moving to another religious position or station as planned by a church agency. Generous preparation of nationals had occurred commencing in 1972 and there was anticipated a sound base of indigenous lecturers and leadership onto which to build. Many were 'poached' by the International Schools System within PNG, offering internationally competitive salary packages.

The measured approach in PNG to preparing teachers' college staff compares favourably with an Africa Survey in 1983 which listed Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria and Zambia as preparing long serving primary teachers by supporting them for one to four years to study for university degrees and become staff in teachers colleges (Fafunwa 1967; Hanson 1967, 1968; Dove 1986). In India, the State Institutes of Education, organised inservice for 'resource personnel who train teachers' (Dove 1986:227). There appeared to be little data about how trainers of teachers in developing countries were prepared for work in colleges and universities.

In sum, policies that supported the preparation of indigenous lecturers were triggered by the international pace and view of indigenous independence. Once political independence was imminent, Canberra, the Public Service and the Department of Education planning was accelerated for the transformation. The Teacher Education Division anticipated professional staff needs and gathered its own momentum internally. Well targeted

consistent Australian aid and World Bank loans for further study supported lecturer preparation opportunities. The process of localisation was integrated with the work of the teacher education system and brought the government and churches' facilities and expertise together in a concentrated and continuous accord over more than twenty years. When the continuity of joint planning was broken by external and internal intervention the directions for full localisation and leadership became unclear.

Research Question 3

What historically constituted pre-service programmes for preparing teachers from 1946 to 1996, including the new three-year Diploma in Teaching (Primary) between 1990/91 and 1993?

Introduction

This study was focused on programmes for indigenous pre-service primary teacher preparation and on their teaching by indigenous lecturers. The sub-questions from Chapter One, Introduction, namely: what teacher preparation was provided initially, how was the length of the programme decided, what (historical) curriculum data were available; how was the content (of the programme) created and/or transmitted to college staff, from what philosophy did the content flow, in what ways was the new Diploma to be different and what were its policy objectives? are revisited.

Research Sub-Question 3.1

What teacher preparation was provided initially?

Preparing teachers for their roles had been a feature of PNGs history as the data showed in Chapter Two. Many members of the PNG Teaching Service gained equivalence status after it was formed in 1970. Mission Permit teachers comprised a large section of the teaching force at earlier points in time (see McKinnon 1968; Meere 1968). Early centres did not issue certificates only exam results. Paper records or later certification were minimal and easily destroyed by the tropical conditions causing their owners despair. However, there was from the 1990s a computerised register of teachers and their qualifications.

Staff and training data in Chapter Six indicate how there were identifiable PNG strategies of early preparation. Overseas today, these may be called mobile teams, summer courses,

external study, tutorships or even team teaching. In PNG there appeared to be an avoidance of the term 'untrained' teachers which in some developing countries were perceived negatively (Lewis 1954; Dove 1986). Larger volatile populations in African states and comparatively less investment in formal teacher education, led there to many colonial and post-Independence teacher preparation innovations, other than only college based. This was for both pre-service and in-service work (Lewis 1954; Hanson 1968; Fafunwa 1971; Hawes 1979; Dove 1986).

In PNG, upgrading for serving teachers who had qualified with a one-year programme was necessary to improve the quality of rural teaching and for the teachers to move from a Teacher Grade level to an Education Officer level. A major innovation over more than a ten year period (1980-1990) was launched for this quality improvement exercise. This may be compared with Australian States which offered upgrading for teachers who had, up until the 1970s, qualified for a two-year Certificate with a monitorship year and/or two years at a teachers' college. Small in-service groups had been attached to PNG pre-service colleges over many years but the concept was to bring those funded inservice places together in the one college and consequently improve the status and content of the programmes. Missions regretted this as in the Church colleges they had found the older students assisted with the pre-service morale, also they had many of their earlier students return which was worthwhile for some continuity in an end-on programme.

In 1980 still the largest proportion of primary teachers in the field were Mission trained over the previous 30 years. Director Johnson had drawn attention to this in 1967. Selection for in-service study at PMIC, which became six months for upgrading and twelve months for leadership, was in the provinces where the Provincial Education Officers followed prescribed criteria. To action the new upgrading policy, the Port Moresby Teachers College was reconstituted as the Port Moresby Inservice College (PMIC). From a policy perspective, hundreds of mature teachers were to be upgraded at PMIC as there were now higher standards required and time for quality as the demand for quantity was perceived as being met (see student-teacher perspective in Chapter Five). A view of the experienced section of the village school staffs was presented to Port Moresby policy-makers. For many students it was the first time in Port Moresby and to live in a town. The human side of the implementation included such aspects as students' health and vision problems, having had no access to medical facilities in remote areas. If spectacles were needed they could not afford to pay a city optician. Budgeting in an

urban setting, handling urban facilities, alcoholism, sending funds safely to families in remote home villages or departing the college because they feared for the life of a spouse, all became some of the PMIC staff tutorial activities and are also recorded in PMIC Government Council and Academic Advisory Committee meetings over the period. PMIC staff who had set high standards and given leadership for pre-service colleges and associate lecturer preparation, found they needed new skills and rural orientation to help waves of yesteryear's brightest from wherever they were in their academic, professional and personal growth (Plummer 1981: 23-33).

Research Sub-Question 3.2

How was the length of the programme decided?

Government teacher education policies and a summary of implementation compiled from 1946 to 1996 are in Appendix 5.1. The data show the length of the pre-service programmes between 1946 and 1996, also the entrance level, venue and school syllabus and college curriculum notes. Data indicate a progression of changes and combinations of lengths of programmes until 1971 when Missions were no longer permitted to graduate one-year trained teachers, three years after the Administration had ceased this practice. This was consistent with how policy was used, for Government to lead the way and Missions to follow, and was the way Director Roakeina still saw the procedure in 1986 when he asked for Madang, the government college, to extend to a three-year programme. The Church colleges were confident enough to insist that they wished to commence the Diploma at the same time as the Government college (APC 1986 and see Chapter Seven for further data). The demand and supply 'formula' for teachers operated while there was pressures for more teachers. The supply of teachers with two years of initial preparation was sustained for provinces. The UPNG undergraduate Diplomas began in the 1970s offering broader inservice possibilities for teachers. In PNG, provincial needs and national teacher education enrolments were closely responsive. Primary school projections were used to calculate teacher demands and future funding statistics.

Research Sub-Question 3.3

What (historical) curriculum data were available for the lecturers?

Information relating to the curricula at different periods are available in college handbooks with a few lines of details of the academic courses. The development of physical, social

and spiritual were also highlighted. Data available in Chapter Five indicated the concern students showed about the comparability of what was offered across the colleges. This concern was not without good reason as some college assessment systems were complex and students normally rarely failed the programme, on academic results. This is linked with the data regarding college concerns for so many withdrawals due to external basic skills examinations. In other colleges, in an attempt to genuinely assist standards, the Governing Councils were firm about their requirements or at times made recommendations to the field inspectors about needs for supervision in precise areas. The students were comfortable with a fail result in one college being a fail in another (see student-teacher resolutions in Chapter Five). College programmes, with course outlines and assessment systems were constructed regularly after the introduction of the National Education Board. Course outlines then usually consisted of a list of topics. Later, when the National Objectives for Teacher Education were written, more similar objectives and format could be identified across colleges' Academic Advisory Committees but the content expansion, assessment tasks and staff and student references varied (see data in Chapter Seven).

Research Sub-Question 3.4

How was the (subject) content of the programme created and/or transmitted to college staff?

As shown in Chapter Seven the subject 'content' was created by teams of staff and specialists although in PNG without the support of many texts for student course work. The PNG content booklets were prepared with options and choices for the staff member to select objectives to write a full course outline or a unit for the staff member's own college's Academic Advisory Committee. These guidelines may have been at times used by some in authority in the college or by those working out of the National Department of Education, in part to create an orderliness for their own responsibilities. Recalling from Chapter Six that inexperienced, but intelligent, officers were operating from both principal and inspection positions and in turn needed frameworks, especially when dealing with longer employed staff. The material was written by mostly nationals with facilitator and editorial support to provide a guide in a context of many transients and localisation of staffing at all levels but not to hinder even more creative individuals. McLaughlin (1988) criticised this 'objectives framework' approach and suggested it may have been appropriate in the 1970s in the context of a developing country, but it was inappropriate in the 1990s. However, the reality was that all staff were not at the same 'stage' of

experience or level of background knowledge in a particular teachers' college subject and appreciated the assistance was there when they needed it. In an account of a TERP sub-project in PNG (Avalos 1989), for a British journal, Avalos (1991b) attempted to analyse some of the actual PNG National Objective booklets and the idea of (supposedly) imposed behavioural objectives. It was identified that some of the booklets contained 'activity' objectives rather than 'learning' objectives and that the intention was to learn by activity. While recent overseas PNG literature, e.g., Avalos (1991a, b, c); McLaughlin (1990) used the term 'teacher training' the term used in PNG was 'teacher education', the definition of the concepts went back in PNG to APC 1968 as the data in Chapters Six and Seven indicated.

Research Sub-Question 3.5

From what philosophy (of education) did the content of the programmes flow?

As the data indicate in Chapter Eight for the new three-year Diploma (and the previous Certificate programme), the philosophy from which content of courses in the college programmes flowed, varied from college to college. Church colleges included their religious mission statement clearly. The ultimate goal was for every citizen to receive an education that resulted in 'integral human development', which was one of the goals of the National Constitution (Education Sector Review, DOE 1991). The PNG Constitution and the Matane Report (1986) were readily identified by staff and available to be read. Avalos (1991b) elicited the philosophy of 'training colleges' in PNG by studying the 'syllabuses' (national objective booklets). Her recommendations related to learning to teach for 'individual differences', because her data in a TERP sub-project (1989) indicated too much structure. However, aspects of 'individual differences' in learners was a long standing element of PNG programmes and was linked initially with child studies and learning theories (see Appendices 7.3a, National Objectives Education Studies 1978; 7.3b, ATE/NEB Framework Professional Development Strand 1990; 7.3c, National Content Guidelines Professional Studies 1992; 7.3d, A lecturer's Course Outline and Lecture Preparation). This finding of researchers regarding teaching to 'individual differences' is given further clarification in the final report. The report highlighted diverse locations of schools in PNG demanding a teacher who was 'more reflective', 'an independent professional' and who will 'treat the child as an individual rather than an object of instruction' (McNamara 1989). Chapter Eight gave data on policy, planning and implementation aspects of the Diploma but not Practice Teaching and Assessment as they

were not detailed in the ATE/NEB Document issued to colleges as a framework for 1990-1993. Project I (1991) however included assessment as an issue in staff responses.

Research Sub-Question 3.6

In what ways was the new Diploma different to the former programme?

The new Diploma was to produce a 'new kind of teacher' according to Secretary Tetaga (1990) speaking along similar lines to the McNamara Report (1989) and the phrases were taken up again in the NEB/ATE framework document (1990). The data from Project III Lecturer Experience and Opinion Questionnaire Responses (1993) indicate some of those phrases were 'caught' and reflect that rhetoric; for example, a teacher was 'reflective with a critical thinking approach to curriculum... and to teaching' and, 'adaptable', 'recognises individual differences in children'; 'self reliant, independent professional', 'adjusts the learning environment to improvise' and 'interested in the community' (Appendix 8.10). The experienced staff were not sure, when they heard the briefly expressed 'new' elements, that they were truly new attributes. Zeegers (2000) writing ten years later about student-teachers and colleagues at that time, took a more controversial approach and inferred that because the Secretary called these characteristics 'new', current teachers therefore did not already display these strengths. From the locale and the limitations explained elsewhere, the bush teachers, in order to physically survive had, had to be, 'self-reliant' and 'professionally committed' and above all, be able to 'improvise' for their students. The list of ideal attributes via the McNamara Report (1989) seemed rather to reflect more an evaluation, at that time, of what the teachers were already trying to do. The reality of the rural schools surprised the researchers as, '...(overseas) research influences what type of research is carried out in the Third World, because most researchers have been educated in the First World' (Weeks 1990). Although wanting a new 'attitude', researchers might have indicated modern practicalities like 'libraries' or 'materials' and limited bookshops and the ability of people to pay the prohibitive prices for what was available. Coming from the outside, what real options might there be for relevant cheaper books in a third world environment. A UK book seller had supplied Farrant (1982) in bulk for a price students could pay. Or even more practical was the ongoing need for a supply to colleges of the Department of Education's own Curriculum Unit school productions. Colleges could not afford to purchase these from the Curriculum Unit. Lack of appropriate texts made working on a new programme even harder for enthusiastic college staff and student-teachers.

From the college programme implementation aspect, the new 'strand' approach, which was grouping Departments, which already consisted of a number of subjects, was another way to attempt to have staff plan and work together. This would, it was anticipated, link and integrate units and courses in one institution, earlier attempted around the Education Studies course and department, for the benefit of the students to assist all programme correlation and coherence.

Research Sub-Question 3.7

What were the programme's policy objectives

Chapter Eight outlined the policy objectives for the new programme and they included; it be extended to three years, which is what colleges most wanted, and upgraded in quality and called a Diploma, even when it eventuated that Grade 12 entrants were not applying in the short term. As important as the researchers' interpretations were for the McNamara Report (1989) and the work of the members for the NEB/ATE framework (1990), the PNG Philosophy of Education (Matane 1986) remained the most respected and substantial local reference although hard to understand, and to implement. By 1996, the Diploma objectives were synthesised in the SD&TD (1996:7) as: 'Student-teachers needed professional preparation which included a body of knowledge that allowed reflection on education as a social process while developing good English language and mathematical skills, and competence in other subject areas'. To implement this general but significant summary, it was said it required then a new paradigm shift, including emphasis on process skills as well as content; integrating content with pedagogy and between areas of content; critical reflection and self-evaluation and providing opportunities for student-centred learning (SD&TD 1996:8).

The NEB/ATE framework drew attention to curriculum issues already debated at the different stages in the past, including for example a Community Development strand, an earlier college inclusion which was dropped soon after Independence, although integral to the 'community school' concept still. The students were to do more for themselves and not to expect lecturers to do student work, a comment made by a Chief of Teacher Training at PMTC in 1963 (Chapter Five) which was seen then as preparation for political Independence. It was proposed that a *primary* teacher was now to be a generalist and to have a curriculum specialisation with 'community development' skills. This situation was similar to the one that led to questioning of the preparation of the 'community school

teacher' by Penias and Quartermaine in 1981 (two Public Servants) at a UPNG forum. The NDOE appeared not to accept how much of a challenge this was for teachers' colleges then, and remained (Avalos 1992b). What the college staff had for programme (or curriculum) objectives were the NEB/ATE framework, which was sketchy, needed interpretation and was not overtly 'new'. What researchers had written about was more complex and new in emphasis or way of thinking about teaching and the responsibility of the learner (Beare 1989).

In sum, efforts were made by firstly missionaries and later governments to prepare primary school teachers and to provide some inservice activities. The length of the programmes was controlled by field demands and the quality of the output also was dependent on a western level of student required by Europeans at different times. Comparability of assessment standards across colleges was not pursued until the introduction of a National Education Board and committees in 1970. When small colleges consolidated, curricula or programmes were prepared by combined college staff workshops compiling National Objectives for Teacher Education in booklets of guidelines and ideas. These were criticised by TERP researchers in the late 1980s and attempts to change this strategy and content were the foci of the McNamara Report (1989). The PNG so-called humanistic philosophy of education (Matane 1986) based on the PNG Constitution (1975) remained the basis of teacher preparation but different churches emphasised their religious orientation. The new Diploma programme was different to the Certificate programme in that it was one year longer. It was co-ordinated by the ATE, with the UPNG professor as chairperson, a common framework was issued (1990) and staff in each college interpreted it to devise a programme. The Programme's policy objectives included the aforesaid to produce a new kind of teacher but staff found it difficult to articulate or emphasise what was new or different, especially as it still required a primary teacher to be a generalist, a specialist and a community development person. The new paradigm shift was not identified, enunciated or diffused clearly.

Research Question 4

Was the three-year primary Diploma programme, as implemented by staff in colleges between 1990/1991 and 1993, congruent with policy objectives?

Introduction

The first three Research Questions provided data also for the fourth question that studied

the implementation of the Diploma by the staff working in the classrooms of the colleges, over a three-year period. Research Question 4 used observations, reports and staff reflections to glean the essence of the research, that is, what the staff actually did. Relevant Research Sub-questions from Chapter One, are firstly: how did the staff handle their new curriculum situation (in 1990/1991), what elements of the implementation were revealed (1991 to 1993) and was the outcome presented by lecturers consistent with the intended changes (end of 1993) and was the implementation congruent with policy objectives. Reference is made to the Literature Review in Chapter Three.

Research Sub-question 4.1

How did the staff in the colleges handle their new curriculum programme situation

Staff in PNG colleges had waited five years to have the opportunity to commence a Diploma in Teaching (Primary) programme. For reasons of tardiness, church college status, lack of local funding and a World Bank representative's advice, the agency being unsympathetic to longer teacher education as a means of quality improvement (World Bank 1982-1987), implementation was postponed (see Chapter Seven).

The new curriculum situation in late 1990/1991 for the rural colleges consisted of two aspects to be quickly handled by staff. One was a three-year programme which required conceptualising as a whole scheme based on a framework, not just an add-on year, and the other was the processing of the consequent preparation through an *ad hoc* administrative structure, the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) chaired by the UPNG Professor (Avalos). Both of these activities impinged on the PNG teacher education system according to staff roles. Those with teaching responsibilities in 1991 for both Certificate and Diploma students were required to write and prepare materials concurrently with normal duties, including various major residential roles. Writing new courses while teaching was not dissimilar to teacher education processes elsewhere at that time (see an Australian perspective Churchill et al 1997), but in the PNG situation, there were other particular circumstances, some of which were as follows: The mostly indigenous staff anticipated making it a PNG orientated Diploma to a standard that would be recognised by UPNG. While they were accustomed to adjusting course-outlines or their own units from year to year, they found the Diploma required more knowledge of what was in other parts of the programme. Consequently more open and efficient communication within institutions was essential. The NEB/ATE framework new 'strand'

organisation needed staff planning and regular meetings. Also, parts of the college programme documents were still brief in early 1991, having been accepted by the ATE in sufficient detail in 1990 for all colleges to be officially incorporated in a 1991 commencement. Some of those document co-ordinators departed the country or were relocated in other colleges (see the relocation movements in Table 8.9).

The ATE chairperson was recorded at the Sector Review Committee in 1991 as reporting that staff in colleges were currently preparing syllabuses for the second and third years (see Chapter Seven). This was part of a longer very positive statement about the Diploma progress. It is possible, that in the context of the reform of the National Education System (NES), its restructure consequences and the ATE chair's commitment to a three-year Diploma, the intent may have been to indicate in the meeting that the Diploma was well underway, and by inference could not be dismantled for a accelerated demand for a supply of 'reform' teachers. (In August 1992 Professor Avalos wrote to that same Committee about teachers not being 'jacks of all trades' if quality was wanted 1992b:15). The chairperson also made a hurried visit to colleges early in 1991, sponsored by the Commission for Higher Education. From that survey it was reported that three workshops held in 1990 and early 1991 'were a forum for college lecturers to discuss the approach in their subject to the new curriculum and receive information and advice on how to proceed' (Avalos 1991c:1). On the other hand, for many staff, actual assistance was minimal and nobody was offering 'advice on how to proceed'. The data showed that by the end of 1991, only a little over 50 percent of college staff attended one central curriculum workshop in those two years. The Australian aid workshops were general professional development type courses later in 1991 and through to the end of their Project in 1995 (Lucas 1996). The UPNG staff were assisting the *ad hoc* ATE committee to view college course submissions and the TED staff found that this was consistent with the National Education Board requesting the Professor to introduce the Diploma and the National Institute of Teacher Education through ATE. *For all participants, the Diploma's acceptance by the UPNG authorities was a goal.* The Teacher Education Division curriculum workshops, to create a 'core curriculum' as identified in the NEB/ATE framework, were delayed, due to funds being used by the PNG Government pre-determined commitment to Australian aid QUT courses and all the in-country costs.

Too many staff were being taken *ad hoc* out of colleges, but the *National Content Guidelines*, were produced in parts by them and tabled at the National Teacher Education

Board of Studies (NTEBS) during 1992 and completed at the end of 1993, the third year. In a 1996 *Background and Needs* paper prepared for consultants and the Commission for Higher Education, these National Content Guidelines were said to need '...ambiguities removed, updating, elaborating, clarifying and reducing...' (SDTD 1996:7). There was no knowledge now of outsider impositions, constraints on document production or that it was considered a first draft, due to the circumstances, even then. In that same vein of retrospection, the generally well informed *Background and Needs* paper listed the NEB/ATE framework, important to this study, as a NDOE document, not ATE's. This is a significant misunderstanding and may, in some senses, be said to be typical of dis-continuity.

The staffs' perceptions, data in Project IA at the end of 1991, reported concerns about the co-ordination of the whole programme (in the college); confusion with content priorities, especially new subjects and, experiencing a personal overload. Data indicated that while about half of the staff had contributed to the whole programme overview presented to ATE in 1990, the majority of staff were writing their own lecture material but were unclear how their work fitted into the whole college change. This was a trend which continued throughout the three years (see Table 8.1). In relation to college internal assistance, especially department integration planning for strands and teaching of new subjects (e.g., Technology, Community Development, Special Education, Option subjects to a higher level in order to specialise), more than 80 percent of staff met weekly as a normal on-going commitment for subject or department meetings. This 40 minute interaction between department staff appeared to offer one of the few opportunities for further integrative planning, if they chose. There did not appear to be internal pressure about strands from administrators or senior lecturers, if staff met.

In Chapter Eight it is shown that new tertiary teaching styles were interpreted by college lecturers as enabling the students to do more research themselves in libraries or on field projects. Also the lecturers, writing formal papers to present in class contact time. The familiar student-teacher activity groups continued but staff wondered if they were considered too much like community school (and not tertiary). Most staff members were already fairly satisfied with their own tertiary styles (see Table 8.12). For most staff their own preparation for teaching at tertiary level had been a diploma or a degree in tertiary studies. Data on staff formal qualifications were shown in Chapter Six and Appendix 6.7.

The student assessment aspects of the new framework aroused strong opinions (see Chapter Eight for staff comments) in part due to not understanding what was proposed in the framework or the way it would be implemented by their college. Assessment and practice teaching changed little in 1991. According to data, the classroom job was important to lecturers. Work pressure, lack of new resources and of administrative readiness and low academic entrance level of students were apparent throughout 1991. There was acceptance of the new policy by staff but differing degrees of understanding of what change involved.

Principals were involved in the original Diploma framework planning as members of the ATE, but, given the work-load of principals, they only had time to work part-time or not at all with their staff on the Diploma development and nominated college co-ordinators. The lack of continuity was a disadvantage in some colleges. While principals overlooked the need for extended integrative leadership and the consequences of allowing students more 'private study', and 'research' (that is, the need for more books and materials and for considering the marking load or different systems for staff keeping tabs). They did adjust student timetables and agreed to discuss assessment system options. In conference with other principals, they identified a programme weakness and a student weakness with ideas to overcome them (see Tables 8.3 and 8.4). As principals comprised the ATE, it could be inferred principals also reported progress of their college implementation to ATE meetings. Compared with other literature on the principals' work (e.g., Wolcott 1997) and work load, the PNG principals benefited by the support of very few administrative staff.

Research Sub-Question 4.2

What elements of the implementation were revealed by the study?

First, unexpected findings or implications were recorded from the general staff data collected during the three years. Second, there was a focus upon data from Research Question 4 Project III, as it pertains to the classroom.

Most noticeable was that staff did not complain about additional or different work, even though recognising the real pressures these caused. There were business-like, professional efforts at implementation, perhaps reflecting that they understood the work was now university level and some displayed, in mimic form, the mannerisms of their own tutors.

While staff normally met in rotation each term with fellow lecturers from other colleges and specialists for central subject workshops to create materials, then adapted them back at their own college, the core curriculum workshops were reduced (from 12 to three) between 1991 and 1993. This may have assisted internal institutional communication which the data in 1991 found to be less active than with outside networks (see Table 8.6). Lucas claimed that in his experience (Australian aid professional development project 1991-1995), staff he met studying at QUT or in PNG, did not seem to know PNG specialists in the same subject or at other colleges (1996:232). This could be explained by one or more of the following reasons. He may have been speaking to new Science-Mathematics Strand staff, just beginning their teacher education career or the unlikely very rapid staff transfers or departures after 1991-1993 of staff in colleges, the NDOE Curriculum Unit and the universities. Or, it may also mean the breaking down of local communications after the efforts he indicated his team were making towards '*institutional* strengthening' (ibid) (emphasis in original). This is a term which sounds positive, but in fact could break down other worthwhile but fragile structures vital in a developing country. In this case, the structure of a 'team' effort across colleges. The idea of a team of colleges was strengthened at a previous phase by the Teacher Education Division of the NDOE to assist to break down suspicion, and to have many people gain from in-country collegiality and shared resources *across colleges.* It is suggested this may need to be sustained, or at least until the indigenous people themselves decide to go back to isolated separated institutions.

Extended college discussions on practice teaching and student assessment for the Diploma were worthwhile, however these elements remained particular to each college, except for earlier college staff generated general guidelines for assessment and practicum. Without practicum being clearly decided within a programme it remained incompletely innovative.

Following consideration of the colleges' awards both by UPNG (in 1993) and by overseas CHE consultants (1994-1996), the issue of there being different programmes across colleges was seen as negative (meaning colleges had interpreted the NEB/ATE framework in their own way as permitted by ATE). Earlier, from TERP researchers, there were criticisms about college work being too similar across colleges and too structured (McLaughlin 1988; Ross 1988; McNamara 1989; Avalos 1989).

It was possible that with the years of collaborative effort on teacher education research,

confident personalities, college independence and divided implementation initiatives as described, a diffusion strategy was not planned by ATE with others for the 'new kind of teacher' in this developing country environment (Rogers & Shoemaker 1971).

Research Sub-Question 4.3

Was the outcome consistent with changes intended in the classroom?

While the outcome intended was a 'new kind of teacher' described by McNamara (1989) and Tetaga (1990), the vision was vague, and not unlike the best Certificate graduates. It was more the rhetoric than the reality, at least in the first years, perhaps of transition while staff built up an image of the 'new kind of teacher' or were able to read their own research. However, neither the challenging changes intended nor the process were clear. The framework booklet (NEB/ATE 1990) left subsequent decisions to the Principal (or co-ordinator) and for staff to interpret. The purpose, principles and content were listed and the attitude of doing less for the student and encouraging self-reliance and independent learning was revived, as it had been in Australia, but not the understanding of 'why'. It was the superficial rather than the substance which was transmitted to the practitioners as 'changes'. This study features college classroom implementation (see Chapter Eight) and not the field-work of the beginning teachers, but as described as at the beginning stage, the lecturers had many ideas, attempted small changes in class and claimed some success (see Tables 8.12 and 8.13).

Research Sub-Question 4.4

Was the general implementation congruent with policy objectives?

System Operations

Policy changes included three years of study and a higher level entrant, the former was achieved the latter was not. A Diploma was gained but not endorsement of it by UPNG, one reason being Grade 12 students were unavailable in large numbers up to the end of this study in 1996. The Association of Teacher Education (ATE) did not become the National Institute of Teacher Education (NITE) as anticipated and the ATE was dormant after 1995. The college staff did not even have the support of normal NES external committees for 1994-1996 contrary to reassurance (Appendix 7.9 (a), (b)). The National Education Board and Ministry committees did not operate and former Staff Development

and Training Division roles relinquished for ATE then overlapped with the beginning of independent CHE initiatives.

System Curriculum

The details of the TERP data were not used by college lecturers to change classroom practice so they did not create or understand a new rationale. They tried to interpret a sketchy NEB/ATE framework compiled elsewhere with enriching but not focused support. They were not involved enough in the curriculum policy change but were involved in the practice (classroom decisions) with minimal co-ordinated curriculum assistance and this aroused some pedagogy ownership.

In sum, the Diploma over the 1990/1991 to 1993 period was implemented with various degrees of congruence to objectives. The staff in each college, after some involvement in the 1990 preparation, willingly introduced a third year despite hesitance about different aspects of the Diploma curriculum. These aspects included content priorities, new subjects and overload of personal and institutional work. This was in part due to leadership and co-ordination reticence internally, lack of staff understanding of the whole programme and limited co-ordinated outside help for college AAC meetings. Classroom implementation however was adapted with staff enabling student-teachers to attempt more alone over the three years. This at an earlier phase may have been seen as lecturers doing insufficient preparation for their teaching but setting-up for and follow-up with students required a new kind of preparation for classroom teaching by the lecturer. It is unclear whether the ATE anticipated such a widely different set of Diploma implementation outcomes.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND PROPOSALS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Methodological and Theoretical Issues

All studies have some areas of weakness and this one is no exception. For example, while a unique and wide variety of historical and contemporary records were collected, studied and sorted, the thesis outcome was linked 'snapshots' of teacher education events over time. This is, in part, due to wanting to present a procession of development from the perspective of the participants and to capture a little of the social aspect of eras.

Having chosen this approach, the word limitations resulted in further selection. The data show groups and personnel deeply involved in PNG teacher education, that it was not just some back-water activity - the purpose was to convey these textures - and the narrative is shared with them. This may be seen to have reduced the flow or to have added interest. A set of 24 reports of the Annual Principals' Conferences (from 1968 to 1996) were relevant 'policy in practice' data and the classroom contact (from 1991 to 1993) illuminated reality. However, to complete an exhaustive chronological view of teacher education in Papua New Guinea a visit to its archives would supplement this work.

Practical Issues

Theory: Consultants, loan agents, staff or students bring their home country's theories and phases of research methodology, literature or teacher education experiences with them from overseas. Acknowledgment that there may be these differences, especially in countries where books and journals are not available or are too costly, may be a professional necessity. It is incumbent on the guest to listen to the host and for them to listen to each other as a means of reaching common ground from where to begin meaningful conversations.

Cross-cultural Aspects: While language and culture are communication considerations widely appreciated, of what these aspects actually comprise, in any professional, classroom teaching, lingual or international/intercultural event, is less recognised. They may include, for example, life values, styles of interaction, ownership of a current situation, shyness rather than openness, different professional vocabulary, taboos, courtesies, fears, interpretations of for what the observer is looking and a wish to please him or her and respect for visitors. The outsider may gain only some superficial information. In PNG, consensus seeking is also part of decision-making and time is spent on reciprocal stories and negotiations. It is possible that in PNG, in the sudden plethora of 1988-1996 research by transients, independent needs assessments by foreign aid donors and consultancies from across the world, full appreciation of history of curriculum and cross-cultural aspects had not been possible. In the closing weeks of writing this material the expression of these findings are articulated by the Director of Education, The World Bank (O'Rourke 2000:39-40).

Commitments: Dunkin & Biddle (1974:427) included 'commitment' as having an

influence on bias. This thesis demonstrated tensions as a result of the commitment of both the insider and the outsider from earliest settlements. Reference was made to the writer being a participant in some of the events during the study period 1946 to 1996. Recognition of this, was another reason why data represented voices of participants. Experience did assist with location of data and interpretation was kept to a minimum (Fox 1969:743). However, almost at the closure of writing the thesis, it was realised that the policies were of a PNG indigenous government and the writer, while not indigenous, identified with it. Through teaching in remote areas in the 1950s, experiencing racism barriers as a result of working with indigenous people in the 1960s and 1970s and localisation in the 1980s and 1990s, a PNG 'government perspective' here should also be perceived as PNG-Western work-lives and events. While this may be seen as an insider subjectivity compared with outsider objectivity issue, there are other ways of looking at that. One way is a 'third culture', '... with segments of both societies' (Useem et al, 1966:430). That explanation was speaking more of the work of foreign diplomats where they were required to act as bridges between societies or of their children who had the potential to be bridges, naturally. What is being spoken of here as 'commitment' is more experience enabling (a little) understanding of two professional cultures: Indigenous PNG-Western and overseas professional visitors and interlopers.

Proposal for Future Research

In this thesis the data locates teacher education in PNG history. It was given a construct that responded to, what were seen by nation-builders as policy for development that needed western schooling. Teachers were produced as shown in a basic original overview in Appendix 5.1.

Policies in practise were indicated as were tensions, gaps and successes. The current teacher education situation in PNG recommends no further research which after a brief college visit criticises what is being done there. For historical facts or administrative theory exactly what was the role of the Office of Higher Education is one 'gap' and the duplicity of their strategies, or those of individuals, while seemingly unnecessary, is challenging to theorists and students of policy formulation.

Second, the view of the provincial primary (community school) inspectorate would give an indication of any changes in recent graduands and a methodology to include them in

any future research may well be rewarding.

Third, this thesis transmits little data in historical or current tribute to the PNG teachers' colleges from an individual perspective. The aspects of paucity of preparation of indigenous administrative support staff and institutional narrative of a positive nature may assist their survival.

Therefore, in this broad context, the proposals for further research are as follows:

An extension of the present study through a comprehensive review of PNG government files and documents, to 'fill-in' what appeared to be gaps in some of the present data.

Attention to the McNamara Report recommendations (Nos 6, 7 and 9) that could only be followed through after the graduation to the provinces of the three-year Diploma students. This would be appropriate field study in the attempt to identify a 'new kind of teacher'.

Investigation of the colleges as institutions which would include students, the ethos and residential nature of teacher preparation in PNG. This is particularly if teacher educators are left to survive in single purpose provincial teachers' colleges without an academic Institute of Teacher Education as a centre-point.

Research carried out on these three and related topics by indigenous PNG teacher educators would assist in the development of a fuller understanding of teacher education ideas in PNG, but it should only be done if and when PNG requested.

CONCLUSIONS

Turning back to the original question which motivated this study and wishing to come to some definitive conclusion, this thesis is developed with the aim as in Chapter One: *The aim of this thesis is to consider teacher education developments in Papua New Guinea (PNG) from 1946 to 1996.* From 1990 and during 1991, 1992 and 1993 college staff were in remote provincial teachers' colleges designing and conducting their new three-year college Diploma programme to provide a 'new kind' (Tetaga 1990) of community school teacher. To demonstrate the uniqueness of this activity, the procession of teacher education in PNG was described and analysed to give meaning and shape to the present

teacher education achievements as shown in the thesis. It was broken into its constituent elements for ease of presentation. The structure, to assist the reader, is around the Research Questions and consequent Sub-Questions. Throughout the thesis, the contributing factors: social, economic, political and education, are interwoven. To 'unpack' the account and to assist the reader, the story is simpler in presentation than in reality.

The major teacher education policy and practice issues in PNG which emerge from this developing country's study relate to the following points:

Policy Development

New policies must be clear to be adopted as proposed. Significant leaders may drive a significant far-reaching policy, such as language of instruction, yet it may need decades to be fully accepted and adopted in practice as originally proposed. In another era, where contributions from different cultures and interest-groups are participants in the formulation of detail, policies are adopted seemingly without ado. Generalisations should be avoided however as each situation is complex and different. Readiness of participants or appropriate timing, who is advantaged or disadvantaged and skills both technical and social are only some regulators, but clarity of intention is basic to the decision-making of Papua New Guineans.

Cross-cultural communication cannot be assumed. Joking and laughing is one means of relating to unfamiliar situations which communicates not happiness but discomfort or fear experienced by the person especially a PNG woman. Expression through touch or embrace in these circumstances should not be mis-interpreted or emulated unthinkingly. Feasts and rituals, associated commonly with Melanesians, can be a means of delaying or avoidance of the foreign intentions. There is a setting up of an obligation or a generous gesture. Sensitivity, patience, spreading out the intentions or openness for all to see may assist any negotiations. Teachers' college staff consist of many different cultures.

Fragility of modern structures need to be taken into account when change is attempted. A modern structure could be setting up and conducting a formal meeting or a curriculum workshop. It may be co-ordinating and producing a whole college programme or operating a student assessment system or dealing with an alcohol consumption problem

among staff on a campus. A multiplicity of routines may be conducted by those who understand and operate a part of a modern structure which if withdrawn or routines adjusted do not readily have locally inclined replacements or alternatives. The converse is the strength of traditional structures.

Church and Government Partnership

Tensions between church goals and government responsibilities are factors to be considered in partnership processes. Networks of influence are the hallmark of the teacher educator and his or her agency working for church group goals. Automatically speaking against government, as though a principle of gaining adherents - setting up a we and they or anti-*status quo* environment, becomes awkward, however when the church is expatriate and government is indigenous. Government responsibilities may be supported by indigenous lecturers understanding and seeing a situation untinged by their religious adherence or as indigenous church people may follow models. Church goals are clear and church workers understand their goals for adherents and resources. Continuity of goals and staff are advantageous. Government responsibilities are thought to be on-going and for the wider community, for example, competence and standards of academic attainment of community school teachers. Public servants may be equally committed to the same ideals as the church and if the task is shared, the partnership can for a time survive.

Localisation of Staff and Implications

Ownership of a project is crucial to meaningful participation by a young nation and its national participants. PNG teachers' college staff and their student-teachers are not all trying to be like the outsider. They are normally proud of who they are and have a place in a family, a college and a society. With interpretation of outside ideas done less by middlemen and more by localised staff they need to understand new ideas and structures before they can decide to accept, or the still more testing endeavour, to implement.

Teachers' College Curriculum Relevance

Assistance for a young nation needs to start from where it sees itself and its priorities. Teachers' college staff in PNG, within the scope of this thesis, have widely differing backgrounds and limited, broad but shallow or narrow but deep college teaching,

academic or administration experience and understanding. Many are very confident about what they do and link college work with a real community they understand better than outsiders. Listening to a developing country representative or listening to indigenous staff plan what they see as relevant curricula is informative for the observer and encouraging for the participant. Where indigenous participants are working together without facilitators from another culture, their own clans and differences become more apparent and the element of bi-culturalism is clearer.

Dissonant events need non-threatening processes for adjustment especially when overseas aid groups are involved. Volunteer organisations which send short-term staff to meet immediate needs in a host country respond to the slightest dissonant event with an efficient process and respect for both the situation of the host and consideration of their workers. With monetary aid tied by donors to finances of domestic project-seekers and their institutions the adjustments become more complicated and lengthy. Losses in the host country may need to be of greater concern and non-threatening helpful processes stream-lined. The on-going implementation needed is in shorter stages and more recipient stake-holder evaluation input and decision making.

Timing of intervention is important when assisting teacher educators. The concept of time in the western imposed college structures differs from traditional time-sense (not lateness, slowness or laziness in a negative sense). This would be clarified by study of an individual institution and forward planning aspects of 'timing'. Intervention with curriculum aid packages can go awry if the stage of development of the lecturer is misinterpreted. Continuity of negotiators within the host country, such as at a National Institute of Teacher Education, would provide this information and skills as well as co-ordination and stability.

Teachers' College Implementation

Adaptations to fit a cultural environment are seen as constructive and essential. Teachers' college staff are experienced at adapting their understanding of what is required of them to the college classroom or school site. They are inhibited, however if they do not understand what is new or what the change is. Initiative is essential and comes from the transferring within the host culture. Individual college staff are bi-cultural or multi-cultural but their student-teachers and school pupils are of the PNG cultures and environment.

Vision for change needs clarification for teachers who will interpret and adapt. Indigenous vision is the ideal. This was on the brink of birth at the time of the beginning of the introduction of the three-year Diploma. The ATE timing was pressured but it could have done more to liaise locally and to nurture indigenous input although by de-centralisation may have anticipated this would occur in the colleges and during the ensuing three years and later. This may have been so, but more benefit from the TERP and the documents should have enriched the indigenous input at college level. Relevant texts for advanced countries with multi-media resources prevail yet this is a practical difficulty in PNG colleges. A vision of a 'new kind of teacher' proposed was not debated.

In cultures where criticism is not public, even constructively critical research may not be thoroughly read, acted upon. The target group may be impatient with what appears constant external negativeness. On the other hand, in the case of teacher education in PNG, between 1986 and 1996, the surge of research in international journals would not have been known about by most indigenous teacher educators. If read, it would not have been responded to in kind and the question is the degree to which it all assisted the PNG college classroom or was a fair picture to the world. It has also been observed and experienced by PNG staff development officers how unwilling some donor nominated institutions are to accept the smallest questioning of their own strategies at home or abroad.

Co-ordination and Continuity of a Teacher Education System

Overall policy formulation, coordination and implementation are supported by continuity. A Teacher Education System as given form in this document up to 1994 evolved purposefully, intelligently and openly. The next phase was not coordinated by the NDOE but what constructive decisions and events have taken place from the mid-1990s will have been as a result of individual local teacher educators rising to the challenge and offering continuity.

The data show how many quality in-country and overseas teacher educators have been part of the history of the PNG teacher education system. The happy, inventive and integrated teacher preparation experience of many young teachers was an investment in nation development.

Reflecting on the situation forty years earlier and PNG now, it appeared that while diversity of cultures, authoritarianism of outsiders and antagonism between participants remained aspects of the teacher education environment, the degree of racism, British influence and education as patchwork had decreased.

Continuity is a valuable element. Using that as a criterion of power to grow, the future of the teachers' colleges is now in the hands of the individual Churches. This is less even-handed than if still with the NDOE and misses the *elan vital* of the indigenous for which the PNG education philosophy may be seeking. A National Institute of Teacher Education has most potential as a centre-point to incorporate the best efforts of indigenous church, government and academic personnel. It would be a base for continuity and have potential for overseas interaction. However, *what* is offered as teacher preparation, should be clear, and the core of the profession, and is particular to a country's culture and standards. To identify and implement this core, various perspectives are essential, but efforts should be made to ensure this is not blurred by too many committees and interest groups.

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Mrs S Abel
Mr D Austin
Miss J Charlesworth
Sr D Cole
Mr P Dennett
Miss F D Edward
Dr J B Farrell
Dr G Gibson
Dr J Hanson
Mr E J Herbert
Mrs J Keating-Owner (deceased 1998)
Mr Tasman Kinibo
Lady Iroto To Robert
Rev S Lowa
Miss A MacWilliam
Sir P Matane
Mr K Miere
Mrs Loamin Nigrit
Dr V McNamara
Mr P Modakewau
Miss J Parle (deceased 1997)
Bro J Paton
Mr N K Robinson
Mr J Salatiel
Sr M Shannon
Bro J Stephenson
Mr M Suari
Miss L Whitchurch (deceased 1999)
Mr T White (deceased 2000)
Miss B Yambumpi